PLAIN

90

W. W. Robofson. Lincoln, Neb.
Dec 30. 1907.
Lincoln Business College

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/plainenglish0000vari

PLAIN ENGLISH:

A PRACTICAL WORK ON THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

FOR USE IN

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES,

COMMERCIAL COLLEGES,

AND FOR

PRIVATE LEARNERS.

CLEVELAND, OHIO.
THE PRACTICAL TEXT-BOOK COMPANY,
PUBLISHERS.

Entered according to Act of Congress
in the year 1892, by

THE PRACTICAL TEXT-BOOK COMPANY,

In the Office of the Librarian of Congress,
at Washington.

DEDICATED

TO

THE BOYS AND GIRLS

WHO

"DON'T LIKE GRAMMAR."

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I.

PAGE.

THE SENTENCE: PARTS OF SPEECH DEVELOPED 1
ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES 13
WORD-MAKING 27
PARTS OF SPEECH SUB-DIVIDED 32
ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES 49
FORM-CHANGES ("INFLECTIONS") 53
VERB-PHRASES EXPRESSING TIME, ETC. 72
INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLE-PHRASES 78
AUXILIARY VERBS 82
PECULIAR USES OF WORDS AND PHRASES 85
EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS 96

PART II.

NOUNS—Facts concerning, and Errors in the use of 99
Miscellaneous Exercises to be Corrected 100
PRONOUNS.—Facts concerning, and Errors in the use of 100
Miscellaneous Errors and Exercises to be Corrected 103
ADJECTIVES. ADVERBS. } Facts concerning, and Errors in the use of 105
Miscellaneous Errors and Exercises to be Corrected 108
VERBS.—Facts concerning, and Errors in the use of 112
Miscellaneous Errors and Exercises to be Corrected 116
PREPOSITIONS.—Facts Concerning, and Errors in the use of 121
Miscellaneous Errors and Exercises to be Corrected 122
CONJUNCTIONS.—Facts Concerning, and Errors in the use of 124
Miscellaneous Errors and Exercises to be Corrected 125
SUPERFLUOUS WORDS 127
POPULAR ABSURDITIES 128
"AWFUL" WORDS 131
MISUSED WORDS 132
BIG WORDS FOR LITTLE IDEAS 141
COUNTERFEIT WORDS 144
CLEARNESS AND FORCE 147
HINTS TO YOUNG WRITERS AND SPEAKERS 161
PUNCTUATION 163
CAPITAL LETTERS 177
APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS 179

APPENDIX.

NOTES, QUOTATIONS, AND COMMENTS 191

INTRODUCTORY.

For many years, there has been an earnest and increasing demand for a practical text-book on the subject of language; a book that would present the essentials of English syntax unencumbered by the rubbish of which the average "grammar" has so largely consisted. With a view to meeting this demand, the present work has been prepared. We claim merit for it on two leading points: 1. What it contains; 2. What it does *not* contain. We believe that the latter, as much as the former, entitles it to consideration.

What the book contains.—Some things that are new; more that are not. The method of treating the subject and the order of arrangement are the principal features of originality. In both these respects, the work will be found thoroughly logical.

PART I covers the essential points in English syntax, including all that pertains to the seven parts of speech and the analysis of sentences. Set rules have purposely been omitted. Definitions have been admitted but sparingly, and in no case until the thing defined has been fully explained. The sentences for practice in analysis have been carefully graded so as to lead the student on in a well-lighted pathway. The parsing to be done is informal,—not of the "cold-blooded" sort which has so long been the bane of English grammar teaching. Apt illustrations and interesting exercises are introduced from time to time, and the colloquial style of presentation has been adhered to throughout. These features will enhance the value of the book in the hands of beginners, and furnish a helpful review for others. Some of the lessons may seem rather long, but they are natural rather

than arbitrary divisions of the work. Considering the very small part to be committed to memory, there are but few of the lessons that may not be taken by an average class at one recitation.

Some may be surprised to find in a work claiming to be practical, that time-honored exercise, *conjugation;* but a closer examination will reveal the fact that the conjugating is not of the "I love," "You love," "He loves" pattern. Only irregular verbs are given for practice, and of these, such troublesome ones as the oft-confused *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*.

PART II is more general in character, covering a variety of subjects and large amount of material for practice, all of which will be found highly practical. The chapters on Clearness and Force, and Punctuation, and the list of Appropriate Prepositions will be found especially valuable features. Considerable space has been given to the study of misused words for the following reason: Once get a student interested in a critical study of words and current phrases, and he naturally becomes critical regarding other features of English. This makes of him a "reflective user of language,"—the essential thing for self-improvement.

The APPENDIX, consisting for the most part of quotations from the very best authors, constitutes in itself a valuable book of reference for teachers and advanced students. Many of the spicy paragraphs, particularly those from the pens of Gould, Mathews, and White, on misused words, will help to enliven the work and fix the points in the minds of students.

The system of references from one part of the book to another, by paragraph numbers, will be found of great value to both student and teacher. By means of these, all facts bearing upon a point may readily be found.

The general plan of the work is such as to enable a student to get a maximum of benefit with a minimum of labor and time. Advanced classes,—those composed of students who have acquired a fair knowledge of English syntax—may begin study at Part II, at the same time reviewing the essential points in Part I.

On reaching the Appendix, such classes may continue the review work by means of the references to all parts of the book.

What the book does not contain.—Upon this point, particularly, we base our claim of real merit. The aim has been to exclude all make-believe. Only the facts of our mother-tongue have been presented, and these have been stated in plain English. Mere technicalities are "conspicuous for their absence."

Teachers have long been asking themselves and one another this question: "Why do we not get better results from our teaching of English grammar?" To this we venture to give the following answer: We have been attempting to teach so much that does not belong to the English language. A large part of our so-called "grammar" has been pure make-believe. In the words of Richard Grant White, we have been trying to "measure our English corn in Latin bushels." Imported Latinisms, such as 'voice' and 'gender,' together with fictitious 'cases,' 'moods,' 'tenses,' etc., and equally fictitious *rules*, have consumed much valuable time that should have been given to studying the realities and beauties of our language. We have been teaching too much *grammar*, not enough *language*. Samuel Ramsey says:

"The weary hours and years spent by our youth in parsing English sentences according to forms borrowed from Greek and Latin are worse than wasted—useless for the avowed purpose of learning to speak and write, and leading to a misapprehension of what our language is."

The small remnants of real grammar in our language (to be found in a few pronoun-forms, one 'case' of nouns, two adjectives, and, to a very limited extent, in verbs) form a very inconsiderable part of English syntax. There are worse errors in every-day speech than using the wrong pronoun-form, or failing to make the verb "agree with its subject." The old farmer who declares that "them horses is matches," commits a less offense against good English than his pretentious city cousin who announces that "those horses are pretty equally matched with each other." In fact, as Mr. Ramsey says, ours is a language in which "the dictionary counts for everything, the grammar almost nothing."

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS AND PARENTS.

To Teachers: Read the preface and introduction to this book and ask your students to do the same.

Read carefully all foot-notes and notes to the teacher.

Require students to read all references. [It may be best, however, to have beginners confine their reference reading to Parts I and II, as some of the points in the Appendix might have a tendency to confuse them at the start.]

Get up enthusiasm in your classes. To do this, do not dwell on minor points; for instance, don't spend much time on the kinds of pronouns and adjectives in Lessons 13 and 14. All parsing should be informal and should never include facts beyond the point to which the student has advanced at the time.

Remember that the mere correcting of errors is, in itself, of little value; indeed, any work that does not lead a student to think for himself is a waste of time.

To Parents: Your work must precede, as well as accompany, that of the teacher; his work is supplementary to yours.

You can do very much by encouraging habits of promptness, neatness, and independent effort on the part of your children. Irregular attendance at school is fatal to genuine success.

Under the guise of "baby-talk," children are often allowed to form incorrect habits of speech that will stick to them through life. During the first six years of his life, a child can learn more that is wrong than he can possibly unlearn in the next dozen years.

Remember that, if your children "*hear* poor English and *read* poor English, they will pretty surely *speak* poor English and *write* poor English."

To both teachers and parents, the following, by Professor Whitney, contains most excellent advice: [*Italics are ours.*]

"It should be a pervading element in the whole school and home training of the young to make them use their own tongue with accuracy and force, and, along with any special drilling directed to this end, some of the rudimentary distinctions and rules of grammar are conveniently taught; but *that is not the study of grammar*, and it will not bear the intrusion of much formal grammar *without being spoiled for its own ends.* It is constant use and practice, under never-failing watch and correction, that makes good writers and speakers; the application of direct authority is the most efficient corrective. Grammar has its part to contribute, but rather in the higher than in the lower stages of the work. One must be a somewhat reflective user of language to amend even here and there a point by grammatical reasons; and *no one ever changed from a bad speaker to a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what he said.*"

PLAIN ENGLISH.

LESSON 1.

1. Words.—There are a great many words in the English language, but nearly all of them belong to a few classes called "Parts of Speech." This name, 'part-of-speech,' when applied to a word, signifies that there is something incomplete about it; and this is true, for a word is only a fraction or 'part' of our speech, or language, as we use it in speaking or writing. (31.)

2. Sentences.—If a person says 'men,' 'boats,' 'flowers,' 'boys,' and stops without saying anything else, you wonder what he means. You know that he has spoken the names of things, but you cannot tell whether he is going to say something good or something bad about them. Again, if he speaks the words 'write,' 'sail,' 'bloom,' 'work,' without using other words with them, you do not understand what he means, because he has told you only a part of his thought. But if he says—

'Men write,' 'Boats sail,' 'Flowers bloom,' 'Boys work,'

you begin to understand his thoughts, because he not only has named the things he is thinking about, but has told you what he thinks about them. When two or more words are put together in this way so as to make *sense*, they form a SENTENCE.

3. Subject and Predicate.—You will notice that each of the sentences above has two parts: 1. The part about which something is said. This is called the SUBJECT. 2. The part that asserts, or says something about the subject. This is called

the PREDICATE. (*Predicate* means 'to speak'—'to assert.') Nearly all our sentences contain other parts, but we shall find there are always these two; in fact, we cannot make sense without them. If we say—

'Business *men write* rapidly,' 'The large *boats sail* smoothly,'
'Pretty *flowers bloom* in the meadow,' 'Industrious *boys work* hard,'

we do not change the subjects and predicates of our sentences, except to add other words to them to bring in other ideas we wish to express.

4. In a game of base-ball, each player is named from the part he takes, or what he does; as "pitcher," "catcher," "umpire," etc. So it is with the words we use in our sentences. What a word *does* decides what part-of-speech it is.

(*a*) All words used like 'men,' 'boats,' 'flowers,' and 'boys,' in the sentences above, to name things, are called **nouns.**

(*b*) All words used like 'write,' 'sail,' 'bloom,' and 'work,' to assert, or say something of the subject, are called **verbs.**

(*c*) The words 'the,' 'large,' 'pretty,' 'business,' and 'industrious,' are not used like 'men,' 'boats,' 'flowers,' 'meadow,' and 'boys,' to name things, so we do not call them *nouns*. Neither are the words 'rapidly,' 'smoothly,' 'in,' and 'hard,' in these sentences, used like the words 'write,' 'sail,' 'bloom,' and 'work,' to assert, therefore they are not *verbs*.

5. Now let us see what we have learned in this lesson:

FIRST.—*Parts of speech* are the classes into which words are divided according to what they *do* in sentences. (331.)

SECOND.—A *sentence* consists of two or more words put together so as to make sense, or express a thought.

THIRD.—A sentence is composed of two parts: 1. The *subject*, naming the thing about which something is asserted; and, 2. The *predicate*, which does the asserting.

FOURTH.—Words used to name things are called *nouns*.

FIFTH.—Words used to assert are called *verbs*. (332.)

SIXTH.—That all other words in a sentence will be named according to what they *do*.

SENTENCE MAKING.

6. Make sentences by asserting something of the following subjects: (Do not supply more than one word.)

trees.....	horses.....	girls.....	winds.....
soldiers.....	clerks.....	women.....	snow.....
children.....	animals.....	bees.....	John.....
birds.....	students.....	flags.....	Carrie.....

To what part-of-speech do the words you have supplied belong?

7. Make sentences by naming subjects for the following predicates: (Do not supply more than one word.)

.....walk	..... fly	.....sleep	..... recite
.....swim	..... build	.....sew	..... study
.....travel	.....sting	.....read	.....grows
.....strike	..... decay	.....burns	.....writes

To what part-of-speech do the words you have supplied belong?

8. For your next lesson, write ten sentences of two words each, by furnishing both subject and predicate. Then, to the subjects and predicates of five of these sentences, add one or two words, as we did with the sentence 'Boys work.'

MODEL: The industrious boys work hard. [See Rule 1 for capitals, 323.]

LESSON 2.

Review first lesson.

9. We learned in our first lesson that we can express a thought with two parts of speech, a *noun* and a *verb*.

We learned also that a verb is a word that asserts, and that the predicate of the sentence is the part that asserts or says something about the subject. Hence, we conclude that *every predicate must contain a verb.*

10. The predicate often consists of more than one word; as—

The comet *was seen.* John *had been writing.*

In the first sentence, it takes two words to make the assertion, *was seen;* in the second, three are required: *had been writing.* When two or more words must be taken together in this way to express a meaning, they are called a **phrase.** Thus, *was seen* and *had been writing* are VERB-PHRASES. (333.)

11. Pronouns.—While the verb is the only part-of-speech that can be used to make an assertion, a noun is not the only one that can be used as the subject, that is, to tell what we are talking about. If a teacher, in speaking of the boys and girls in his school, should say "They study," or if he should point to George and say "He studies," or to Mary and say "She studies," you would understand his meaning, although he would not be using anyone's name. The words *he*, *she*, and *they*, are used in place of the names of the persons; hence, they are called PRONOUNS. (*Pro-* means 'for' or 'in the place of.')

A pronoun mentions a thing without naming it. (334.)

12. There are not many pure pronouns in our language. Those you will use oftenest as subjects of sentences are **I, you, he, she, we, they,** and **it.** Write seven sentences using these pronouns for subjects. Let the sentences be short. Use verb-phrases for some of the predicates.

13. We shall find that words generally used as other parts of speech are sometimes used as pronouns, that is, 'to represent things without naming them.' Both nouns and pronouns have other uses besides being the subjects of sentences. We shall learn about this at another time.

Tell what thing is represented by each of the *italicized* words in the following

FABLE.

A fox once invited a stork to dine with *him*. *He* set before *her* a shallow dish of food. The fox ate of *it* greedily for the dish suited *his* short nose. But the poor bird, dipping in the end of *her* long beak, could scarcely take up any of *it*. "*You* do not take your soup," said the fox. "*I* fear *you* do not like *it*." Then *he* bade the servant bring some puddings. But when the puddings were brought, *they* also were all in shallow dishes, so that the poor stork could not enjoy *them*. The spiteful fox enjoyed *his* cruel joke, but the hungry stork went home angry. However, *she* determined to revenge *herself* on *her* cunning enemy. *She* waited till the fox had forgotten *his* trick and then *she* sent *him* an invitation to dinner. When *they* sat down there were six dishes on the table, but *they* were so narrow at *their* tops that the fox could not get *his* head into *them*. *He* tried each dish, but in vain. Meantime, the stork dipped in *her* long bill and dined very pleasantly; but the fox was silent and sullen. Presently *he* burst out: "*I* do not like *your* dishes, Mrs. Stork." "Nor did *I* like *your* dishes, Mr. Fox!"

Point out thirty-eight nouns in this fable.

LESSON 3.

14. You have seen that a great many sentences can be formed by using a noun or pronoun for the subject and a verb for the predicate. These three parts of speech are the only ones that can form sentences without the help of other words. But there are other parts of speech in most of our sentences, and we are now to consider two of them that are very closely connected with the subject and predicate.

15. Adjectives.—If we say—

'The *chilly* wind blows,' 'This *red* rose has faded,'
'The *light* wood burns,' 'The *cold* rain was falling,'

we add the words 'the,' 'this,' 'chilly,' 'light,' 'red,' and 'cold,' to the nouns to describe or point out the things named. All words added to nouns in this way are called ADJECTIVES. The word "adjective" means 'added,' that is, added to a noun. (335.)

When we say 'Wood burns,' we make a general statement, that is, we say a thing that is true of any kind of wood; but when we say '*the* wood,' or '*this* wood,' or '*hard* wood,' or '*light* wood,' we limit the word 'wood' to some particular *kind*, or to some particular *piece* of wood, by pointing out or describing the wood we are speaking about. Words added to a noun in this way are said to "qualify" or "limit" it, since they tell what kind or *quality* the thing is, or else they point out a certain object and thus *limit* the name so we can tell which one is meant. Therefore—

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun to qualify or limit its meaning.

(*a*) You may generally know an adjective by its answering one of the following questions: *Which? What kind? How many?*

Remark.—Sometimes several adjectives limit or qualify the same noun.

(*b*) Words that limit or qualify other words are called **modifiers,** because they *modify* ('affect') the ideas represented by the words to which they are added.

Point out the adjectives in the sentences at (*a*) in paragraph 40, and tell what question each one answers.

16. Predicate Adjectives.—When we say 'Apples fall,' we make a general statement; but in the sentence, 'Ripe apples fall,' we limit the statement to a certain kind or class of apples, by adding the word 'ripe' to the noun. But this is not the only way to add a describing word to a noun, for we may say—

'The apples are ripe.'

In this sentence we have done more than simply call them '*ripe* apples;' we have made a positive assertion that they *are* ripe. You will notice that the little word 'are' does the asserting, therefore it is a verb. You will notice also that if you drop

the word 'ripe' and say 'The apples are,' the verb 'are' does not seem to make a complete predicate. It requires the addition of some word to make the sense complete. Now, *ripe* is not a verb but an adjective describing the apples, and it is connected to the subject by *are*.

(*a*) Besides **are,** there are a few other verbs that do not make complete predicates by themselves. The commonest of them are **be, am, is, was,** and **were.** (100 *b*, *Note.*) They are called **copula verbs,** because they are almost always followed by some word which they *couple* ('connect') to the subject, and which describes or limits the subject in some way.

(*b*) When an adjective is used as we used 'ripe,' to complete the sense of the predicate and qualify the subject, it is called a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE, that is, an adjective in the predicate. (342.)

Examples: Iron is *heavy*. John was *sick*. We are *sorry*. I am *well*.

Make sentences of the following by putting adjectives after the copula verbs:

The sun is.....	The water is.....
The peaches are.....	The nuts are.....
The children were.....	The flowers were.....
The fire was.....	The ice was.....
The cherries were.....	The men were.....

(*c*) The copulas are often put before other verbs to help form verb-phrases; as—

They *are walking*. He *was writing*. The berries *were picked*.

Make sentences by putting verbs in the blanks given above.

17. Nouns and pronouns are often used to complete the predicate assertion, being coupled to the subject by some copula verb. They are then called *predicate-nouns* and *pronouns*. (342.)

Examples: Willie is a cash-boy. Frank is a reporter. They are miners. We were chums. It is I. It was she. It was they.

Make sentences of the following by putting nouns after the copulas:

Charles is.....	Mr. Morgan is.....	Lillie is.....
We are.....	He was.....	They were.....

Complete the following by putting pronouns after the copulas:

(Use only the pronouns given in paragraph 12.)

It is.....	It is.....	It is.....	It is.....
It was.....	It was.....	It was.....	It was.....

WORD EXERCISE. (Oral.)

18. Furnish adjectives that mean the opposite of these:

hard,	sorry,	ripe,	little,	white,
careful,	smooth,	late,	honest,	narrow,
sweet,	full,	weak,	tough,	happy,
crooked,	long,	noisy,	slow,	light.

Write sentences containing these adjectives, or their opposites, and hand them in at your next lesson.

(*a*) Write sentences containing the following words used in the ways indicated:

Plow, as a noun; as a verb. *Plant*, as a noun; as a verb.
Paint, as a noun; as a verb. *Lost*, as a verb; as an adjective.
Fire, as a noun; as a verb. *Cold*, as a noun; as an adjective.
Light, as a noun; as a verb; as an adjective.

MODEL: All *hope* is gone. (noun.) I *hope* not. (verb.)

LESSON 4.

Review, and discuss sentences brought in by students.

19. Adverbs.—In our last lesson, we learned about the words that are added to the noun to qualify or limit its meaning. Now let us look at some of those words we added to the verbs in our first lesson. Take the sentence, 'Business men write rapidly.' We may leave off the last word and still have a sentence, since the other three words will make sense without it. The word 'rapidly' is added to the word 'write' to express another idea we have in mind. It tells *how* the men write. Words used in this way are called ADVERBS, which means 'added to verbs.'

20. While nearly all adverbs are added to verbs to qualify them, sometimes an adverb is added to an adjective to answer the question *how?* before it; as—

The air was *very* impure. The road is *too* rough.

Here the adverbs 'very' and 'too' are added to the adjectives 'impure' and 'rough' to tell *how* impure and *how* rough. *Too* and *very* are always adverbs.

(*a*) Again, an adverb is sometimes added to another adverb to answer the question *how?*

Examples: It rained *very* gently. You must work *more* carefully.

An adverb is a word that modifies the meaning of a verb or an adjective, and it sometimes modifies another adverb. (336.)

21. If we say '*Some* business men write *very* rapidly,' we qualify not only *write*, by adding to it the word 'rapidly,' but also *rapidly*, by adding to it the word 'very.'

Notice, too, that we have limited the subject still further, by using the word 'some,' which expresses the idea that not *all* business men write *very* rapidly, but that *some* of them do.

Thus each word we use in a sentence represents some idea. Each word does something to help us express our thoughts. So, we may say that *a word is the sign of an idea.* An *idea* is a part of a complete thought. When we say—

'The beautiful little violets bloom in the springtime,'

the idea of *beauty* and the idea of their being *little* are parts of the thought we express about the violets.

22. How to Tell Adverbs.—We can generally tell without much trouble which words are adverbs, for they will answer one of the following questions: *How? When? Where? Why? How long? How often?* and sometimes *How much?* but not *How many?* In the following sentences, fill the blanks with adverbs that will answer some of these questions:

MODEL: That man works.....(how?) 'quietly;' (when?) daily.

The train runs.....	The soldiers marched.....
The girl studies.....	The fire burns.....
The rain falls.....	He talked.....sensibly.
You should walk.....	He was.....confident.
The men fought.....	She reads.....rapidly.

23. Point out the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the following sentences and tell what words the adverbs modify:

The leader spoke *loudly.*	Wet wood burns *slowly.*
The soldiers stepped *quickly.*	He was *very seriously* hurt.
The flowers were *quite* fragrant.	*Then* we walked *more carefully.*

Tell which of the underscored words in the fable on page 5 are adjectives and which are adverbs. Tell in each case what the word modifies and what question it answers. [See paragraphs 15 (*a*) and 22.]

See how many pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs you can find in the story of "Judge Grammar's Court," in paragraph 125.

24. The same word may be an adjective in one sentence and an adverb in another. [See paragraph 4.]

WORD EXERCISE. (Oral or Written.)

Use each of the following words, first as an adjective, then as an adverb: *Little*, *late*, *hard*, *first*, *fast*, *last*, *much*, *more*, *high*, *long*, *short.*

LESSON 5.

25. We have learned about the *independent* parts of speech—nouns, pronouns, and verbs. With these we can form sentences without the help of other words. We have also studied about the *modifying* parts of speech—adjectives and adverbs.

We are now ready to study about two other classes of words that we often use in our sentences. Let us see what they *do.*

26. Prepositions.—We have seen how a noun or pronoun may be used as the subject of a sentence. By putting some word like *at*, *in*, *of*, *to*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *with*, or *without*, before them, we may use nouns or pronouns in the place of adjectives and adverbs to describe or limit nouns and verbs. Thus, we may say—

'He is a man *of wealth*,' or, 'He is a wealthy man.'
'A toad *with horns* is a curiosity,' or, 'A horned toad is a curiosity.'
'A tree *without leaves* is not beautiful,' or, 'A leafless tree is not'—etc.
'I spoke *in haste*,' instead of, 'I spoke hastily.'
'She writes *with ease*,' instead of, 'She writes easily.'
'He went *at that time*,' instead of, 'He went then.'

In the first three of these sentences, the phrases 'of wealth,' 'with horns,' and 'without leaves,' are used in the place of the adjectives *wealthy*, *horned*, and *leafless*. In the other three, the phrases 'in haste,' 'with ease,' and 'at that time,' take the place of the adverbs *hastily*, *easily*, and *then*.

The little words that begin these phrases are called PREPOSITIONS. (337.)

27. A **phrase,** as we have already learned (10), is made up of words which must be read together to show their meaning in the sentence.

(*a*) When a phrase takes the place of an adjective, it is called an *adjectival phrase*. (338.)

(*b*) When it takes the place of an adverb, a phrase is called *adverbial*.

28. Point out the prepositions in the following sentences and tell whether they begin adjectival or adverbial phrases; also tell what single word each of the phrases is equivalent to:

MODEL: **A man of prudence was chosen.** *Of* is a preposition introducing the adjectival phrase *of prudence*, which is equivalent to the adjective 'prudent,' describing 'man.' The sentence when abbreviated reads, 'A prudent man was chosen.'

1. An act of kindness pays. 2. A thing of beauty is adored. 3. Trips of pleasure were taken. 4. A boy without a home should be pitied. 5. He is a man of honor. 6. A person of experience is wanted. 7. It was an act of bravery. 8. The soldiers were men without fears. 9. We all went in haste. 10. They listened with reverence. 11. He lived by himself. 12. That man spoke without thought. 13. The soldier was rewarded for his deed of heroism.

Point out the subjects and predicates in the sentences above.

Point out the prepositions and phrases in the fable on page 5.

29. Conjunctions.—In the sentences—

John and Henry went to school, Mary plays and sings well,
The man or his wife will come, I am not glad but sorry,

we have three words that are different from any we have yet studied.

In the first sentence, the subject is 'John *and* Henry,' the two names being joined together by the word 'and.' In the second sentence, the same word connects the two verbs, 'plays' and 'sings.' In the third sentence, *or* is used to connect the two nouns 'man' and 'wife.' In the last sentence, *but* joins together the adjectives 'glad' and 'sorry.'

(*a*) These words, *and*, *or*, *but*, and others like them, are called CONJUNCTIONS. (*Con-* means 'together;' *junction*, 'to join.')

[For list of principal conjunctions, see paragraphs 110 (*a*) and 112.]

(*b*) Conjunctions often connect phrases; thus—

They rushed into the house *and* up the stairs.

Here the two abverbial phrases, 'into the house' and 'up the stairs,' are joined together by *and*.

(*c*) Conjunctions are also used to join sentences together; as—

John came *and* I went. She played *but* they did not sing.

(*d*) We find, from the above, that—

Conjunctions join together words, phrases, and sentences. (339.)

30. For your next lesson, write five answers to each of the following questions, using a preposition in each answer:

Where did John go? *Where*, or *how*, did they travel? *When* did you go?

MODELS: John went *into* the house. They traveled *through* Europe, *by* boat. I went *in* the evening,—*after* school,—*before* supper.

Point out the conjunctions in the sentences in paragraph 51.

LESSON 6.

Review briefly the seven parts of speech.

31. We have learned that there are seven different ways in which words may be used in sentences to express our thoughts. There are a few words that are sometimes used *along with* sentences to make exclamations, or express some strong feeling. They are such as, *O! oh! ah! pshaw! hello! hurrah! halleluiah!* and are called **interjections.** Since these words express *feelings* and not *ideas*, they do not add anything to the thought of the sentence with which they are used, therefore, they are not properly "parts of speech." They might be compared to the boys that sit on the fence and yell while the men are playing ball. These boys do not *take part* in the game. They simply give expression to their *feelings*. (340.)

Note.—Besides the interjections, there are but few words in our language that are ever used in such a way that we cannot name them as belonging to one of the seven parts of speech. The principal ones are **yes** and **no,** used in answering questions; **it** and **there,** when used as indefinite subjects of sentences; and **so, well, now, why,** and **that,** when used merely to introduce sentences.

Examples: Did he go? *No.* Are you busy? *Yes.* *There* are exceptions to all rules. *Well,* it is finished. *So,* you are going, are you? *It* is true *that* I am going. *Why,* I am surprised. *Now,* it happened in this way.

32. The base-ball player does not always take the same part. For instance, the "short-stop" for a base-ball team in one game may be the "catcher" in the next game; yet he will be *the same person.* So it is with most of the words we use. They do not always belong to the same part-of-speech, because they do not always *do* the same thing in the sentences. To illustrate this, take the following sentences:

Singing was taught. They *are singing.* The *singing* bird delighted us.

Here the word 'singing' does three different things. In the first sentence, it appears as the name of an action, therefore it is

a *noun*; in the second, it is one of the asserting words, therefore it is a *verb*; while in the third, it describes or qualifies the noun 'bird,' therefore it is an *adjective*. So you see we cannot name a word (tell what part-of-speech it belongs to) until we find out what it *does* in the sentence.

33. The work of finding out what a word *does* and then *naming* it, is called PARSING. There are two steps in parsing: 1. Pointing out the subject and predicate, and the words and phrases that modify them. 2. Naming the part-of-speech to which each word belongs. The first step is usually called **analysis.**

34. Elements.—To *analyze* anything is 'to unloose' or 'separate it into its parts;' and we speak of 'analyzing' a sentence when we pick out the subject and predicate and other parts, because we do, in a sense, 'unloose' or 'separate' them from one another. These parts of a sentence are called its ELEMENTS.

(*a*) An element of a sentence may consist of a word, a phrase, or a clause. So far, our phrases have been either verb-phrases, adjectival phrases, or adverbial phrases; but, as we shall see farther on, phrases of one kind or another may be used as any part of a sentence.

35. Principal Elements.—In our first lesson we found that each sentence must contain at least two elements, a *subject* and a *predicate*. (3.) Since no sentence can be formed without these two, and since they can express a thought without the help of other elements, the subject and predicate are called PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. (*Principal* means 'highest in rank or importance.')

36. Sentences containing only principal elements, to be analyzed and parsed:

Example of Analysis and Parsing: **Snow melts.** *Snow* is the subject of this sentence, and *melts* is the predicate. *Snow* is the name of something, therefore it is a noun. *Melts* is an asserting word, therefore it is a verb.

Winds blow.	Lawyers plead.	Flowers bloom.
Men trade.	Water freezes.	Merchants fail.
Women sew.	She cried.	Children play.
Railroads are built.	He was arrested.	Letters were written.

37. Subordinate Elements.—We have seen that other parts may be added to the subject and predicate to bring in other ideas. Thus, we may say—

'The **snow** on the mountain **melts** slowly.'

Here the subject 'snow' is modified by the adjective 'the' and the phrase 'on the mountain;' while the predicate 'melts' is modified by the adverb 'slowly.' *Snow* is the bare subject, and *The snow on the mountains* is the complete subject. '*Melts*' is the bare predicate, while *melts slowly* is the complete predicate.

(*a*) The **bare subject** is the subject without its modifiers.

The **complete subject** is the bare subject with all its modifiers.

(*b*) The **bare predicate** is the predicate without its modifiers.

The **complete predicate** is the bare predicate with all its modifiers.

Remarks.—The *bare subject* and *bare predicate* are also called the *unmodified subject* and *unmodified predicate.* (341.)

The *complete subject* and *complete predicate* are also called the *modified subject* and *modified predicate.*

(*c*) All the words and phrases added to the bare subject and bare predicate to form the complete subject and complete predicate are called SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS. (*Subordinate* means 'lower in rank or importance.')

There are four subordinate elements; namely, *adjectival*, *adverbial*, *objective*, and *connecting*.

38. An **adjectival element** modifies a noun or pronoun.

39. An **adverbial element** modifies any other part-of-speech except nouns and pronouns. (336 *b.*)

Remark.—Adjectival and abverbial elements, when they are single words, are generally adjectives and adverbs; but we shall see farther on that nouns and pronouns are sometimes used for these elements.

40. Sentences containing adjectival and adverbial elements, to be analyzed and parsed:

MODEL: **The whole train was badly wrecked.** *Train* is the bare subject, and *was wrecked* is the bare predicate. The complete subject is *The whole*

train; the complete predicate, *was badly wrecked.* *Train* is a name, therefore it is a noun. *Was wrecked* makes the assertion, therefore it is a verb-phrase. *The* and *whole* limit the noun 'train,' therefore they are adjectives. *Badly* modifies the verb-phrase 'was wrecked,' therefore it is an adverb.

(*a*) Cold winds blow.
The little birds sing.
The pretty flowers bloom.
Business men trade.
The ship was staunch.
The winter is mild.
The little children are happy.
Stale food is unwholesome.
Long letters were written.
They should be made solid.
The boy has been absent.
The weather had been hot.
Those papers will be valuable.

(*b*) Those men talk loudly.
The clerk was very angry.
Such sights are rarely seen.
The note is now due.
They seldom make a mistake.
We were greatly disappointed.
The market is extremely dull.
The water is not pure.
That man always pays promptly.
That lady is very graceful.
The streets were nearly blockaded.
The bargain has just been completed.
She has always been cheerful.

Notice that a verb-phrase, as well as a single copula verb, may be followed by an adjective.

41. Sentences containing adjectival and abverbial phrase-elements, to be analyzed and parsed:

MODEL: **A gentle breeze was blowing from the south.** Bare subject, *breeze;* bare predicate, *was blowing;* complete subject, *a gentle breeze;* complete predicate, *was blowing from the south.* *From the south* is an adverbial phrase modifying 'was blowing.' *A* and *gentle* are adjectives modifying the noun 'breeze.' *Was blowing* is a verb-phrase. *From* is a preposition introducing the phrase 'from the south.' *The* is an adjective limiting the noun 'south.'

1. The flowers in the garden are blooming. 2. The papers are delivered in the evening. 3. The bushes along the bank are green. 4. Merchants advertise in newspapers. 5. The pebbles in the brook were very smooth. 6. The money was deposited in the bank. 7. The flowers in the woods are fragrant. 8. We walked slowly across the fields. 9. The house by the river was swept away by the flood. 10. Farmers work hard during the summer. 11. The dew on the grass sparkled in the sunlight. 12. The man with one arm was drowned. 13. Too many men are guilty of embezzlement. 14. Letters of recommendation will be helpful to you. 15. A large number of boys were present on time 16. Snow remains on some high mountains throughout the summer. 17. The history of words is an interesting study. 18. Regular hours of sleep are necessary to health.

(*a*) Adjectival phrases are sometimes used as a part of the predicate after a copula verb; as—

John is of a quiet disposition.

In this sentence, *of a quiet disposition* describes John as truly as the adjective 'quiet' does in 'John is always quiet.' Therefore *of a quiet disposition* is a predicate-adjectival-phrase. (16 *b* and 342.)

(*b*) Sometimes the copula verb is followed by a phrase that does not describe the subject, but tells *where* the person or thing *is*, *was*, or *will be*; as—

He is *in Europe*. The key was *under the mat*. I shall be *at home*.

When the phrase thus answers the question *where?* the copula verb forms the predicate by itself and the phrase is an adverbial one.

19. That man is in earnest. 20. The boys were in fun. 21. The pigs are in the clover. 22. The cow is in the corn. 23. I am in doubt about it. 24. The machine is of little use. 25. The top was of brass. 26. They are by themselves. 27. The bees are on the wing. 28. It will be in a bad condition. 29. We were under shelter. 30. We shall be under obligations to you. 31. The cottage is in the shade of a large oak.

(*c*) Adverbial phrases often come at the first of the sentence. [See rule for punctuating such sentences, 304.]

32. In some countries, salt is very valuable. 33. In the meantime, the old homestead had been sold to a wealthy planter. 34. In that way, the whole fortune was spent. 35. By this time, we could see quite clearly. 36. For a few minutes, he was dazed by the news. 37. Near the lake, a beautiful mansion had been built.

LESSON 7.

42. Objective Elements.—In the sentence—

The lightning struck the tall tree in the park,

tree names the object that was struck. And in the sentence—

The little child overturned the kettle of boiling water,

kettle names the object, or thing that the child turned over,

Kettle is the bare (or unmodified) object, and *kettle of boiling water* is the complete object.

The water scalded him.

In this sentence, *him* is the object telling *who* was scalded. Again, in the sentence—

That young lady has a handsome watch,

watch is the object, telling what the young lady *has*, or *possesses*.

When a noun or pronoun is used after a verb in such a way as to answer the question *what?* (or *who?*), it is called the **object** of the verb. (343 and 348.)

Notice that these objects follow verbs that express *doing* or *having;* that is, *action* or *possession*.

The copula verbs (16 *a*) do not express action or possession, therefore they are not followed by objects, though, as we have seen (17), nouns and pronouns are sometimes used after them to complete the predicate.

Remark.—Some verbs that express action or possession do not always have objects after them, while others never do. We shall learn more about this at another time. (97 *a* and 98.)

Turn to Lesson 1, and supply *modified subjects* for the predicates in paragraph 7 and place objects after as many of the verbs as will take objects.

43. How to tell the Object.—When you are in doubt as to what is the object of a verb, or whether it has an object at all, you may easily find out by reading the predicate and putting the question *what?* (or *who?*) after it. If there is a word that will answer the question, that word is the object. Thus, in the first example in paragraph 42, we ask "struck what?" Answer: "the tree;" and in the second example, "overturned what?" Answer: "the kettle"—the *object*.

Remark.—Since the verb is always limited by its object, consider the object and its modifiers as a part of the complete predicate. Thus, in the first example above, the complete predicate is '*struck the tall tree in the park*.' (343.)

44. Sentences containing objects: [Analyze and parse.]

1. The sun warms the earth. 2. They cheered the president. 3. Whittier wrote beautiful poems. 4. The late frost killed the early fruit. 5. Dark clouds cover the sky. 6. I have the lesson. 7. George has a fine dog. 8. You have a bad cold. 9. They had an enjoyable time. 10. Ye shall have peace.

45. The principal word in adjectival and adverbial phrases will answer the same question after the preposition that the object of a verb answers after the predicate. Thus, in—

The firm advertised for a bookkeeper,

we may ask "advertised for what?" Answer: "a bookkeeper." And in—

He wrote a long letter to me about that matter,

if we ask the questions "wrote to *whom?*" and "wrote about *what?*" the answers will be "me" and "matter," the objects of *to* and *about;* while the question "wrote *what?*" brings out the object of the verb,—"letter." The complete object is *a long letter*, while the complete predicate is *wrote a long letter to me about that matter.*

Point out the objects of the prepositions in the sentences in paragraph 41.

46. Direct and Indirect Objects.—Verbs of action often have two objects; one naming the thing that receives the action, and the other naming the thing indirectly affected by it. Thus, in—

He gave me a book, The tailor made him a coat,

the meaning is not 'He gave *me*,' and 'The tailor made *him*,' but 'He gave a *book* [to] *me*,' and 'The tailor made a *coat* [for] *him*. In these sentences, *book* and *coat* are the DIRECT OBJECTS, and *me* and *him* the INDIRECT OBJECTS.

Remark.—The *indirect* object of a verb comes before the *direct* object, and its relation to the verb may be expressed by *to* or *for*. When, however, we supply *to* or *for* before the indirect object, the phrase thus formed follows the direct object, and the indirect object of the verb becomes the object of the

preposition. To illustrate this, take the two forms of the second example in paragraph 45:

He wrote *me* a long *letter* about that matter.
He wrote a long *letter* to *me* about that matter.

47. Point out the direct and indirect objects of the verbs in the following sentences, and then change the indirect object into a phrase, so that it will become the object of *to* or *for*:

The clerk sold her the goods. The proprietor showed us the letter.
The captain told them a big yarn. His friends bought him a gold watch.
The careless druggist gave the poor fellow the wrong medicine.
The railway company gave all the conductors very strict orders.
The government had been furnishing the Indians food and clothing.

48. The **objective element** answers the question *what?* (or *who?*) after a verb expressing action or possession. It also answers the question *what?* (or *whom?*) after prepositions. (348.)

The *indirect object* of a verb of action names the person or thing *to* (or *for*) which the act is done.

LESSON 8.

FORMS OF ELEMENTS.

49. We have seen that an element of a sentence may be either a word or a phrase. (34 *b*.)

We shall see farther on that a *clause* (which is nearly the same as a sentence) may be used as an element. (111 *a*.)

An element consisting of a word is a **word** element.
An element consisting of a phrase is a **phrase** element.
An element consisting of a clause is a **clause** element.

A word, phrase, or clause element that has no modifiers is called a **simple** element; but when it has modifiers, it is called a **complex** element.

Two or more elements of the same kind may be joined together by conjunctions; thus—

Checks *and* drafts are cashed. He drinks neither tea *nor* coffee.
You may ride *or* walk. She teaches shorthand *and* typewriting.
The boys *and* girls play in the house *and* on the lawn.
Payment in gold *or* bank-notes was demanded *but* refused.

When two or more word or phrase elements of the same kind are connected in this way, they form what is called a **compound** element; and the word (a conjunction) that connects them is a **connecting** element.

Remark.—Besides conjunctions, there are other connecting elements which we shall learn about at another time. (356.)

50. Simple and Compound Sentences.—So far, we have studied sentences that make but one statement, or assertion; as—

They all went to the picnic. I stayed at home and worked.
Charles works in a factory. Henry is employed in an office.

Such sentences are called SIMPLE. They contain but one subject and one predicate each. But we frequently unite two such statements into one sentence by using a conjunction; thus—

They all went to the picnic, *but* I stayed at home and worked.
Charles works in a factory, *and* Henry is employed in an office.
You must do your work better, *or* we shall discharge you.

(*a*) When two or more simple sentences are connected in this way, they form what is called a COMPOUND SENTENCE.

51. Point out the *compound elements*, the *connecting elements*, and the *compound sentences* in the following:

1. Silver and gold are precious metals. 2. The merry children laugh and play. 3. Spelling and arithmetic are practical studies. 4. Reading and writing should be learned in youth. 5. Greek and Latin are dead languages. 6. Those apples are mellow and sweet. 7. That flower is beautiful but not fragrant. 8. They came and went in a hurry. 9. They destroyed the town with shot and shell. 10. In this country, the sons of the rich and poor are educated together. 11. "Genuine politeness comes only by a union of inward grace and outward culture." 12. A beaver can live on land or in the water.

Remark.—Sometimes a part or all of the conjunctions are omitted. [For the

punctuation in such cases, see Rule 2 for use of comma, paragraph 303, *b*, *c*, *d*, also, rule for semicolon, 312³.]

13. They wash, iron, cook, eat, and sleep in the same room. 14. Wheat, corn, and oats are raised in this country, in India, and in Europe. 15. He went to school and I stayed at home. 16. They came but the work was finished. 17. The morning stars sang together and all the sons of God shouted for joy.

18. We silently gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

19. The way was long; the wind was cold;
The minstrel was infirm and old.

20. Great Nature spoke; observant man obeyed;
Cities were formed; societies were made.

21. War and love are strange compeers.
War sheds blood, and love sheds tears
War has swords, and love has darts;
War breaks heads, and love breaks hearts.

Note to Teacher.—For further work in analyzing compound elements, use the first ten sentences given for practice under Rule 2 for the comma, 303.

LESSON 9.

ORDER OF ELEMENTS.

52. In the English language, the usual order of the leading elements in a sentence is—

SUBJECT, PREDICATE, OBJECT; thus—
Girls like music.

Remark.—This order of elements is called the NATURAL, or LOGICAL order. (*Logical*, means 'according to sense, or reason.')

(*a*) Adjectives usually stand before the nouns they modify; thus—

The boys generally like mental arithmetic.
adj. n. adv. v. adj. n.

(*b*) Adverbs may be placed either before or after the verbs they modify; thus—

The old **man** then **spoke** kindly to the little child.
adj. adj. n. adv. v. adv. prep. adj. adj. n.

(*c*) When adverbs modify adjectives or other adverbs, they are placed before them (344); thus—

She could read and **write** quite well for one so young.
pro. v.-phrase c. v. adv. adv. prep. pro. adv. adj.

The business **affairs** of some men **do** not, at this season,
adj. adj. n. prep. adj. n. v. adv. prep. adj. n.

allow *them* very many **opportunities** for rest or pleasure.
v. pro. adv. adj. n. prep. n. c. n.

Notice that the adverb 'not,' and the phrase 'at this season,' come between the two parts of the predicate 'do allow,' in the last sentence.

(*d*) Adjectival and adverbial phrases naturally follow the words they limit, as shown in the sentences above.

53. The logical order of the elements in a sentence is by no means strictly adhered to. Indeed, our language is so flexible that we may express the same thought in different ways by changing the order of the elements, especially the subordinate elements. However, in the *assertive* sentence (which is the only kind we have considered so far), the leading elements, subject, predicate, and object, usually come in that order.

54. Rewrite the following sentences, placing the elements in their logical order:

1. A mighty man was he. 2. Uneasy lies his head. 3. Blessed are the pure in heart. 4. Swiftly fly the twilight hours. 5. A prettier scene you never saw. 6. A jolly old soul was he. 7. A lovelier flower on earth was never seen. 8. Down swept the chill wind from the north. 9. Slow and sure comes up the golden year. 10. Beneath the arched gateway, stood a single sentinel. 11. Silently and sadly fell the autumn leaves. 12. Seaward still flows the brook, clear and sparkling. 13. Louder and still louder thundered the tempest. 14. Between Nose and Eyes, arose a strange contest. 15. Against the wall leans the peach tree, and over all wanders the woodbine.

16. There, in the midst of its farms, reposed the Acadian village.
Strongly built were the houses, with frames of oak and of hemlock.

17. Floated the boat, with its dripping oars on the motionless water.
Filled was Evangeline's heart with inexpressible sweetness. (135, *Note.*)

18. Still stands the forest primeval; but under the shade of its branches
Dwells another race, with other customs and language.

19. — the woods against a stormy sky,
Their giant branches tossed.

20. Now on the place of slaughter,
Are cots and sheepfolds seen.

21. By the flow of the inland river,
Asleep are the ranks of the dead.

22. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds.

23. Filled with awe was Hiawatha
At the aspect of his father.
On the air about him wildly
Tossed and streamed his cloudy tresses.

To the Student.—When the sentences above have been rearranged, indicate the elements in the following manner:*

Draw heavy lines under the subject, predicate, and object.

Draw a light line under each phrase beginning with a preposition.

Make a dotted line under the connecting elements.

MODEL. He preached the gospel to the poor, and He healed the sick and fed the hungry. (79*c*.)

Note.—When a conjunction is omitted, it may be supplied in brackets; thus—

The wave was clear, [and] the beach was bright
With snowy shells and sparkling stones.

---

*__To the Teacher.__—This marking of the elements is not given here as a system of diagraming. You will notice that the adjectives and adverbs are not indicated. For beginners, at least, marking the leading elements (including phrases entire) is better than a complex system that goes into detail. Too often the latter becomes mere guess-work with the student, causing him to lose sight of the real object of analysis—*dissection of the thought expressed.*

Transposing inverted sentences by placing their elements in logical order, is an exercise that may, with profit, be extended. It trains the student to see the leading elements at a glance, and to grasp at once the thought of the sentence,—a matter of paramount importance aside from its syntactical bearing. But the real benefit of this exercise cannot be realized by practicing with detached sentences or single couplets. Longer selections, in which there is a thread of thought running through several verses, are more profitable. Longfellow's "Evangeline," and "Hiawatha" contain many excellent passages for this work.

LESSON 10.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

55. Besides the *assertive* sentence (the kind used to make assertions, or simple statements), there are three other kinds; namely, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*. The ways in which these sentences differ from the assertive sentence, and from each other, are as follows:

56. Interrogative Sentence.—This is the question-asking sentence (*inter-* 'between;' *rogare*, 'to ask,'), and the way in which its arrangement differs from the assertive sentence is that the predicate, at least a part of it, usually comes before the subject; thus—

Can the boy write? Has she a home?
Did they go? How soon will he arrive?

(*a*) In pointing out the principal elements of such sentences, consider them as being assertive answers to themselves; thus—

The boy can write. She has a home.
They did go. He will arrive soon.

Remark.—In sentences like the last one, the interrogative word (such as, *how*, *why*, *where*, *when*,) is not used in the answer; it should be parsed as an *interrogative adverb*. (105.)

(*b*) Three words frequently used in asking questions are **who, which,** and **what.** These words are sometimes the subjects of interrogative sentences, and sometimes the objects. When a sentence beginning with either of them cannot be changed into an assertive answer, *by using the same words and no others*, the *who*, *which*, or *what* is the subject; as—

Who bought it? *Which* was there? *What* ails you?

But when the sentence beginning with either of these words can be changed into the assertive form and make sense *without using other words*, the *who*, *which*, or *what* is not the subject; as—

Which do you prefer? *What* were they hunting?
Who shall I see? For *whom* did you ask?

Examples: You do prefer *which?* You did ask for *whom?* [See 348 *a.*]

57. Imperative Sentence.—This is the kind of sentence used when we wish to *command* or make a *request*. The peculiar thing about it is that the subject is always omitted but is understood to be *you* (the person spoken to); thus—

[You] 'Bring me the book.' [You] 'Please shut the door.'

In such commands as—

"Go," "Forward, march," "Charge for the guns," he said,

the real meaning is—

'[You] go,' '[You] march forward,' He said, '[You] charge for the guns.'

In analyzing imperative sentences, say merely that 'the subject is *you*, *understood*,' or that 'the subject is *not expressed*.'

[For the punctuation of assertive and imperative sentences, see paragraph 314.]

58. We have seen that words denoting strong feeling are not 'parts of speech,' being simply *interjections*. (31; also 340.) These exclamations may include several words; as—

O! Absolom, my son, my son! Eternity! Oh how long!

But such expressions are not *sentences*, since they do not contain a verb. However, whole sentences may be used in an exclamatory way to denote strong feeling of some kind; as—

O could I speak His matchless worth!
Oh, if I could but live my life over again!

Remarks.—These exclamatory sentences, when taken with their connections, are found to be subordinate sentences [clauses] of *condition*. (188.)

(*a*) The exclamatory sentence sometimes has the interrogative form to express strong feeling, without any expectation of an answer; as—

How could he act so! Who could have thought such a thing!

(*b*) Assertive sentences are sometimes made exclamatory in utterance, the order of elements remaining unchanged; thus—

As it I could be guilty of such a thing!
And that man talks of virtue!

(*c*) Imperative sentences or expressions are often exclamatory in their utterance. When written, they are followed by the sign of exclamation; thus—

Forward! Charge for the guns! Don't give up the ship!

LESSON 11.

WORD-MAKING.

Note to Teacher.— This lesson is put here, chiefly for reference purposes in connection with subsequent work. It may be taken part at a time, along with future lessons, as indicated in paragraph 79 *b*.

59. We get the words in our language from two sources; or, in other words, they are of two kinds; namely—

Those that originated *with* or *in* the language.

Those that have been borrowed from other languages.

The first kind are called *Anglo-Saxon* (pure English) words; the others are called *foreign* words. Both foreign and English words are divided into three classes: SIMPLE, DERIVATIVE, and COMPOUND.

Remark.—These three classes have reference to the *forms* of words and not to the parts of speech to which they belong.

60. Simple Words are those that are not made from (or out of) other words, such as *do*, *kind*, *seven*, *home*, *bear*, *will*.

(Simple words are also called "root," "primitive," or "radical" words.)

61. Derivative Words are those that are derived from other words by the use of prefixes and suffixes, as, *ado*, *unkind*, *seventy*, *homely*, *unbearable*, *unwilling*.

A *prefix* is a syllable placed before a word; as, *a*do, *un*kind.

A *suffix* is a letter or syllable placed at the end of a word; as, home*ly*, seven*ty*. Prefixes and suffixes are called *affixes*.

Sometimes a prefix and suffix are both added to a word; as, *un*will*ing*, *un*bear*able*, *un*kind*ness*.

62. Compound Words are those that are made by uniting two or more words into one; as, *penholder*, *mankind*, *railway*, *bookkeeper*, *runaway*, *wood-box*, *Anglo-Saxon*.

63. One peculiarity about derivative and compound words is that they may, and generally do, belong to a different part-of-speech from the word or words out of which they are made. Thus the adjective 'truthful' is derived

from the noun 'truth,' and by the addition of another suffix we change it from an adjective back to a noun,—*truthfulness*. The noun 'runaway' is composed of the verb *run* and the adverb *away;* the adverb 'away' is composed of the adjective *a* and the noun *way*.

Adding prefixes and suffixes to words to form *derivatives*, or putting words together to form *compound* words is called **composition,** or **word-making.** Many of our words in common use were obtained in this way and it will be interesting to notice how different parts of speech have thus been made.

64. Nouns.—DERIVATIVE NOUNS are formed—

1. By suffixes to adjectives, themselves either simple or derivative; as, sickness, happiness, eagerness, sadness, security, reality.

2. By suffixes to simple nouns; as, heroism, skepticism, Americanism, agriculturist, geologist, conversationist.

Note.—In this way, a few nouns are formed to denote female sex; as heroine, countess. In the same manner we form nouns denoting small things; as, seedling, duckling, gosling, booklet, leaflet.

3. By prefixes to other nouns; as, disadvantage, inability, nonsense, uncertainty, ex-governor.

4. By suffixes to verbs; as, writer, swimmer, flattery, impeachment.

Note.—From verbs are derived (by the addition of the suffix *ing*) a class of words used as the names of *actions;* as, singing, dancing, writing, printing. As will be seen hereafter, these words are not always pure nouns, being sometimes nouns with verbal natures. (164.)

Furnish nouns belonging to each of the above-mentioned classes.

65. COMPOUND NOUNS are made—

1. By putting together two or more simple or derivative nouns; as, crow-bar, postman, sidewalk, cash-boy, hand-organ, foot-ball.

2. By prefixing an adjective to a noun which it describes; as, bluebell, white-face, midnight, mainsail, red-man.

3. By suffixing a noun to a verb; as, driveway, feed-box, pickpocket.

4. By suffixing the adjective full (dropping the last *l*) to nouns; as, handful, spoonful, basketful. (360 *d.*)

5. By prefixing a preposition to a noun or verb; as, outskirts, output, income, forethought, forerunner, overcomer.

6 By prefixing a noun or a participle to a noun, the latter being described by the former; as, seashore, housetop, sewing-machine, carving-knife.

7. *Phrases* consisting of two or more nouns used as the name of a single person or thing are considered as one word. Examples: Abraham Lincoln, James A. Garfield, Harriet Beecher Stowe. Sometimes three or more words of

various parts of speech are united and used as one noun; thus, *father-in-law*, *Stratford-on-Avon*, *Mary Queen of Scots*, *Alexander the Great*. (211.)

Furnish compound nouns belonging to each of these classes.

[For instruction in the use of the hyphen in compound words, see 319.]

66. Pronouns.—In this part-of-speech, we have only *simple* and *compound* words—no *derivatives*.

(*a*) SIMPLE PRONOUNS are *I*, *we*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*, and *none*, *aught*, *naught*, *some*, *any*, *one*, *all*, and *each*. The first seven of these are called *personal* pronouns (80); the others are called *indefinites* (83).

(*b*) It is true that there are other forms of these simple personal pronouns, such as *me*, *us*, *his*, *him*, *her*, *them*, etc.; but while these forms are, in part (some of them are not), made from the simple forms given above, the change in form is for another purpose, and not to compose new words. (141 and 143.)

67. COMPOUND PRONOUNS are made—

1. By combining the personal pronouns with the noun *self* (or *selves*); thus, myself, himself, herself, yourself, themselves, and ourselves.

2. By prefixing the indefinite adjectives *some*, *any*, *every*, and *no*, to *one*, *thing*, and *body*; as, someone, something, somebody, anyone, anything. (144 *b*.)

3. *Phrases.*—There are two pronoun phrases; *each other* and *one another*.

Write all the compound pronouns you can make with the words given above.

68. Adjectives.—DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES are formed—

1. By suffixes to nouns, as follows: handy, manly, useful, bridal, boyish, nervous, careless, heroic, reasonable, delightsome, earthen, forked, parental, commercial.

2. By suffixes to verbs; as, movable, desirable, active, talkative, written, broken, defeated, bowed, sparkling, singing.

Note.—The last six belong to a class of words that are not regarded as pure adjectives except when they are placed immediately before the noun they qualify. (87 *b* and 170.)

3. By suffixes to other adjectives; as, later, latest, warmer, warmest, greenish, cleanly, gladsome.

Note.—The first four of these words are, in fact, formed for the purpose of comparison, and not to make new words. (145–6.)

4. By prefixes to other adjectives; as, unhandy, immovable, impure.

Furnish adjectives belonging to the above-mentioned classes.

69. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES are made by putting together two or more words of different parts of speech, as follows:

1. A *noun* and an *adjective*, as, sea-sick, foot-sore, knee-deep, sky-blue.

2. A *noun* and a *verb;* as, moss-covered, snow-capped, star-spangled.

3. An *adjective* and a *noun*, the latter having *ed* as an adjective suffix; as, hard-hearted, high-toned, light-fingered, old-fashioned.

4 An *adjective* and a *verb;* as, new-born, well-fed, slow-going.

5. An *adverb* and a *verb* or an *adjective;* as, everlasting, never-ending, over-anxious, full-grown, full-blown.

6. *Phrases* consisting of three or more words are sometimes used as a single adjective; thus, a *happy-go-lucky* fellow, a *go-as-you-please* style.

The article *a* (from *an*) is used with *many*, *such*, *what*, *quite*, and *few*, to form adjective-phrases, thus, *many a*, *such a*, *what a*, *quite a*, and *a few*. It is also used before 'great many;' as, *A great many* people were there.

Furnish adjectives belonging to each of these classes.

70. Verbs.—DERIVATIVE VERBS are formed as follows:

1. By prefixes: (*a*) To other verbs; as, unwrap, bemoan, disown, rewrite, enclose. (*b*) To nouns; as, embalm, enthrone, enjoy, disorder, behead. (*c*) To adjectives; as, belate, renew, refresh.

2. By suffixes: (*a*) To adjectives; as, purify, nullify, lighten, soften. (*b*) To nouns; as, frighten, terrorize, journalize, memorize.

3. By both prefixes and suffixes; as, dishearten, enlighten, unfasten.

4. By changes in the ending of nouns and adjectives; as, qualify, electrify, beautify, horrify.

Note.—Some verbs are derived from others by change of form, as, *sang* from *sing*, *wrote* from *write*, *came* from *come*, *talked* from *talk*, *beaten* from *beat*. But as this change in the form of the verb is not for the purpose of making a new word, it does not really belong to composition. (162[1].)

71. COMPOUND VERBS are made—

1. By prefixing a preposition to a verb, the preposition having an adverbial sense; as, oversee, uplift, withdraw, outshine, foretell.

2. By prefixing a noun to a verb; as, browbeat, water-soak, case-harden.

Note 1.—Many nouns are used as verbs, the verbal use signifying what is done *by* or *with* the thing named when the word is a noun; as, to *pen* a letter, to *hand* a book, to *express* a package, to *mail* a letter, to *people* a country, to *tree* a coon, to *roof* a house, to *snowball* a person, to *copyright* an article.

Note 2.—*Phrases* consisting of two or more verbs are not compound verbs, though they are usually parsed as one word. (10.)

Furnish verbs belonging to each of the above-mentioned classes.

72. Adverbs.—DERIVATIVE ADVERBS are formed in the following ways:

1. By suffixes to adjectives, chiefly the suffix *ly;* as, dearly, fully, rarely, honestly.

2. By changing the adjective suffix, *ble* to *bly;* as, ably, nobly, feebly; *ic* is changed to *ical* before adding *ly;* as, heroically, frantically.

3. By the suffix *ward*, added to nouns and prepositions; thus, skyward, homeward, forward, toward, upward. (See 278[1].)

4. By adding to adjectives or nouns: (*a*) The prefix *a* (from *on*); as, anew, afresh, ahead, afoot, a-fishing. (*b*) The prefix *be* (from *by*); as, beside, beyond.

Furnish adverbs belonging to the above-mentioned classes.

73. COMPOUND ADVERBS are made by union of two or more parts of speech, the more common being—

1. An *adjective* and a *noun;* as, always, sometime, otherwise.
2. An *adjective* and an *adjective;* as, almost, already.
3. An *adverb* and an *adverb;* as, henceforward, henceforth.
4. An *adverb* and a *preposition;* as, herewith, herein, wherefore.
5. A *preposition* and an *adverb;* as, forever, perhaps.
6. A *preposition* and a *noun;* as, overhead, underside, outside.
7. *Phrases*, consisting of a preposition followed by an adjective, serve the purpose of single adverbs; as, *in vain, of late, at last, for good.*

Furnish adverbs belonging to the above-mentioned classes.

74. Prepositions.—DERIVATIVE PREPOSITIONS are formed—

1. From verbs; as, during, concerning, excepting, respecting.

2. By prefixing *a* to other parts of speech, chiefly nouns and adjectives; as, along, around, aslant, aboard.

Remark.—Strictly speaking, these are compound prepositions, as the prefix *a* is from the preposition *on.*

75. COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS are made—

1. By uniting two prepositions; as, into, upon, within, throughout.

2. By uniting a preposition and some other part-of-speech, usually a *noun* or an *adjective;* as, beside, below, between.

3. *Phrases*, consisting of two or more prepositions, are often used with the value of a single preposition. Examples: *From over, from under, because of.*

Furnish prepositions and preposition-phrases, as above.

76. Conjunctions.—As regards composition, conjunctions are not easily classified. They are much like the derivative and compound adverbs, many of which are used conjunctively [See 110 *a* and *Note;* also 113.]

(*a*) *Phrases*, consisting of two or more words, are used as conjunctions with an adverbial sense. They are such as, *except that, in order that, inasmuch as.*

LESSON 12.

KINDS OF NOUNS.

77. In previous lessons, we have been analyzing sentences and classifying words according to what they do. We have found that there are eight classes of words, as follows:

1. **Nouns.**—Words that name things. (4 *a.*)

2. **Pronouns.**—Words that mention things without naming them. (11.)

3. **Adjectives.**—Words that limit or qualify nouns and pronouns. (15.)

4. **Verbs.**—Words that assert existence, action, or possession. (4 *b*, 332.)

5. **Adverbs.**—Words that modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. (20.)

6. **Prepositions.**—Words placed before nouns and pronouns to form adjectival and adverbial phrases. (26–7.)

7. **Conjunctions.**—Words that join words, phrases, and sentences. (29.)

8. **Independent** words, consisting of interjections and a few words used merely to introduce sentences. (31, *Note.*)

78. So far, we have been calling all names simply *nouns*. All words used as substitutes for names we have called *pronouns*. All asserting words we have classed as *verbs*. But now we shall see there are different *kinds* of nouns, different *kinds* of pronouns, different *kinds* of verbs, and so on with all the parts of speech except the preposition. In the sentence—

'Henry is the smallest boy in school,'

we have two nouns referring to the same person, '*Henry*,'—'*boy*,' but you can see they are different kinds of names. The word 'boy' is a name that may be applied to each of the boys in school, while the other name does not belong to anyone but *Henry;* it is properly his own name. In the sentence, 'New York is a large city.' The name, 'New York,' is the *proper*, or *particular* name of a certain city, while the word 'city' is a name that may be applied to other places besides New York. So, in the sentences—

Dr. Wilson is a noted *physician*, *Pike's Peak* is a high *mountain*,
The *Mississippi* is a long *river*, *Texas* is a large *state*,
February is the shortest *month*,

the names, Dr. Wilson, Mississippi, Texas, Pike's Peak, and February are said to be **proper nouns,** for the reason that they are names that belong only to those persons or objects. In these sentences, the words 'physician,' 'river,' 'mountain,' 'state,' and 'month' are names that may be applied to each one of a class of objects; hence, they are called **common nouns.** (*Common* means 'applying, or belonging to many.')

Write the following names in two columns, one headed PROPER NOUNS, the other, COMMON NOUNS: [See Rule 5 for capitals, 323.]

george, man, apple, horse, columbus, ohio, january, town, atlantic, month, lizzie, james, niagara, canal, england, country, ocean, indian, rocky mountains, city, detroit, charles, son, school, people, german, hat, language, paris, september, day, friday, dog, rover, chicago, wealth, money, doctor, henry, paper, john smith, tribune, flower, harper's ferry.

Write ten proper nouns from memory and twenty common nouns, names of things in or about the school-room.

79. A great many of our common nouns are names of things that we cannot see or handle; such as, truth, pleasure, noise, perfume, flavor, knowledge, size. Others are the names of actions or deeds, as, singing, talking, fishing.

Examples: *Crying* will not help the matter. *Fishing* is fine sport.

(*a*) Still other common nouns are the names of qualities, feelings, etc.; as, sweetness, happiness, shrewdness, anger, strength, beauty, honesty. These nouns are usually formed from adjectives (64[1]) and are called ABSTRACT NOUNS. Form such nouns from the following words:

Soft, harsh, rough, smooth, cruel, brave, humble, severe, able, responsible, hasty, heavy, sour, sharp, glad, righteous, willing, broad, deep, high, long.

(*b*) Furnish nouns like those in classes 2, 3, and 4, in paragraph 64; also compound nouns like those in each of the groups in paragraph 65.*

(*c*) Adjectives sometimes become nouns by being used as the names of the objects they describe; as, "I would feed the *hungry* and clothe the *poor*."

(*d*) Some common nouns are the names of groups or collections of things; as, pair, crowd, score, family, squad, gang, swarm, flock, herd, jury, army, committee. These are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

(*e*) Nouns denoting time, measure, value, direction, or distance, when added to verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, are called ADVERBIAL NOUNS. (109.)

Examples: He talked an *hour*. We ran a *mile*. The grass is a *foot* high.

How many common and how many proper nouns can you find in the story of "Judge Grammar's Court," page 51?

LESSON 13.

KINDS OF PRONOUNS.

A pronoun, as we have seen (11), is a word that mentions a thing without naming it.

80. Personal Pronouns.—A few pronouns show whether they represent the person *speaking*, the person spoken *to*, or the person spoken *of*. Hence, they are called PERSONAL PRONOUNS and are said to be of the *first*, *second*, or *third* person. (345.)

*__To the Teacher.__—Not to be required of the class unless Lesson 10 was omitted.

1. The first person pronouns are *I* and *we*.

2. The only second person pronoun is *you* (or thou.)

3. The third person pronouns are *he*, *she*, *they*, and *it*.

81. The personal pronouns given above are used as subjects of sentences and in the predicate after a copula, but most of them have other forms that are used as objects. They are: First person, *me*, *us*; second person, (thee); third person, *him*, *her*, *them*.

(*a*) There are still other forms of the personal pronouns used when we wish to show which person a thing belongs to. They are: First person, *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*; second person, *your*, *yours* (thy, thine); third person, *his*, *her*, *hers*, *their*, *theirs*, and *its*. (346.)

Note.—These last forms of the personal pronouns are called *possessives*. We shall learn more about them, and the object forms in a future lesson.

Remark.—*Thou*, *thee*, *thy*, and *thine* are old English forms which are now rarely met with except in the Bible and in poetry. They are still used in serious forms of address, especially in prayer.

82. Relative Pronouns.—Three pronouns, **who, which,** and **that,** are often used to refer ('relate') to some noun or pronoun in the same sentence; thus—

He is the man *who* did the work. Did you see the boy *that* was hurt?
He once owned the house *which* (or *that*) stands on the hill yonder.

Since these words, 'who,' 'which,' and 'that,' relate to some other word, they are called RELATIVES; and because that "other word" generally comes before the relative, it is called the *antecedent*, (*ante-* 'before;' *cedent*, 'going.') Thus in the sentences above, *man*, *boy*, and *house* are the antecedents of *who*, *which*, and *that*. (347 *a*.)

(*a*) *Who* has two other forms (*whose* and *whom*) which are used as relatives; thus—

He is the man to *whom* I refer. He is the man *whose* house was burned.

Remark.—Relative pronouns are also called *conjunctive* pronouns. (356 *c*.)

(*b*) The antecedent of *who* is sometimes omitted; thus—

[He] *Who* does the best his circumstance allows
Does well, acts nobly, angels could do no more.

(*c*) The antecedent of *which* may be a phrase or a whole clause; thus—

The speaker did not arrive, which greatly disappointed the audience.
He is known to be *perfectly honest*, which is saying a great deal.

(*d*) The relative itself is often omitted; thus—

These are the flowers [that] she gave me.
The book [which] you sent me is very interesting.

83. Indefinite Pronouns.—A pronoun that does not point out a person or relate to some *definite* person or object is an INDEFINITE PRONOUN. This class includes—

(*a*) The following words always used as pronouns: 1, *none*, *aught*, *naught*; 2, the compounds of *some*, *any*, *every*, and *no*, with *one*, *thing*, and *body* (67²); 3, the phrases *each other*, and *one another*.

It is often used indefinitely as the subject of such sentences, as, *It* snows. *It* blows. With the indefinites, may also be classed the word *thing*. (334 *b*.)

(*b*) The interrogative pronoun *who* (whom and whose), and the interrogative adjectives *which* and *what*, when not followed by the noun about which the question is asked. (90.) Examples: *Who* was it? *Whose* are they? Of *whom* did you inquire? *Which* came? *What* will you have?

(*c*) *Who* (whose and whom), *which*, and *what*, when used to introduce noun clauses. (120.) Examples: Do you know *who* came? I could not tell *which* was right. He did not know *what* he wanted. I do not know *whose* they are.

(*d*) Certain indefinite adjectives when used as pronouns. (92.)

84. Adjective Pronouns.—When a word that is usually an adjective is used by itself to represent a thing, it becomes a pronoun and is called an ADJECTIVE-PRONOUN. (93.)

To this class belong the indefinites mentioned above (83 *d*); also the demonstratives *this*, *that*, *former*, *latter*, and *same* (89); and the interrogative adjectives *which* and *what*. (91.)

85. We find that *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what* have a variety of uses, as follows:

(*a*) The first three are relatives when they follow some noun or pronoun to which they relate. (82.)

Remark.—*Who* is used to relate to persons; *which*, to things (including infants); while *that* relates to either persons or things. *That* after *and* is a relative if *who* or *which* will take the place of both words, "and that." (347 *c*.)

(*b*) *Who* (whom) when not a relative is always an indefinite.

(*c*) *Which* when not a relative is an indefinite if used without a noun.

(*d*) *What* when not used with a noun is an indefinite.

(*e*) *Which* (whose) and *what* when followed by nouns are adjectives,—interrogative (91) or indefinite. (92 *a*.)

(*f*) *That*, besides being a relative, is sometimes an adjective-pronoun (84), sometimes a conjunction (115), and sometimes a mere introductory word. (31, *Note*, and 207.)

86. Parse the italicized words in the following fable, by telling to which class of pronouns each belongs:

An old farmer *who* was at the point of death sent for *his* son, *who* was an idle, careless fellow. When the son came, *his* father said: "*I* fear that *you* will soon spend all *your* money; but *I* will tell you *what* you must do when *you* find that *you* have *nothing*. There is a treasure in the ground——" "*Who* put *it* there? To *whom* does *it* belong? In what part of the farm is *it*? *What* shall *I* do to get *it*?" eagerly inquired the son. "*You* will find *it* if *you* dig for *it*," answered *his* father; "but *I* will not tell *you who* put *it* there, nor where *it* is." Soon after *this* the farmer died. The young man forgot *everything* about the treasure till the money *which* had been left *him* was all gone. Then *he* remembered *what* his father had told *him* to do. So *he* worked away and dug everywhere about the farm. *He* did not find the treasure *that* he was hunting, but *his* digging enriched the ground so that *it* brought forth a double crop; and *that* was as good as a treasure. After *this he* became an industrious man and prospered as *his* father had prospered before *him*.

LESSON 14.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

87. Most of the adjectives in our language are words added to nouns to limit or qualify them by describing the person or object named; as,—

A *good* apple, a *high* price, a *valuable* horse, an *honest* man, the *short* method, *Japanese* fans, the *French* fleet, the *Russian* army, the *American* flag. These are called **descriptive adjectives.** They answer the questions *which?* and *what kind?*

(*a*) Descriptive adjectives derived from proper nouns, as 'Japanese,' 'French,' 'Russian,' 'American,' are called *proper* adjectives. [See Rule 8 for capitals, 323.]

(*b*) Some descriptive adjectives are derived from verbs; as, a *shining* light, a *boiling* spring, a *rippling* stream, *startling* news. (68², *Note.*)

(*c*) Nouns are often used as descriptive adjectives; as, a *lead* pipe, a *stone* wall, a *brass* door-knob, an *oak* tree.

Besides the descriptives, there are the following kinds of adjectives:

88. Numerals.—These are such as *one*, *four*, *ten*, *thirty*, answering the question *how many?* Also such as *second*, *fifth*, *twentieth*, answering the question *which?*

Remark.—Numerals sometimes become pronouns. "Where *two* or *three* are gathered together in my name," etc. "The *fourth* was better than the *third.*"

89. Demonstratives.—(*Demonstrate*—'to point out.') There are five demonstratives: *this* (these), *that* (those), *yonder*, *former*, *latter*, and *same.*

These and *those* are but different forms of *this* and *that.* (150.)

This and *these* are used to point out things near by; *that* and *those* to point out, or refer to things farther away; *former* and *latter*, to show which of two things already mentioned is referred to; *same* refers to something just spoken of. The demonstratives answer the question *which?* When the name of the thing referred to is not given in the sentence they become adjective-pronouns. (84.)

90. Articles.—Two adjectives, *an* (or *a*) and *the*, are called ARTICLES. (349.)

(*a*) The word 'an' (or *a*) is a weak form of the numeral *one*; but unlike the numerals it does not answer the question *how many?* nor yet the question *which?* excepting in an indefinite way; as—

An accident happened. A man was killed. A sad sight.

Hence, *an* is called the *indefinite* article. [See 150 *a*.]

(*b*) *The* is but a weakened form of the demonstrative *that*. It is called the *definite* article because it points out in a more definite way. (349 *a*.)

Examples: The accident happened yesterday. The sight was a sad one.

91. Interrogatives.—*Which*, *what*, and *whose*, when used before the name of the thing about which a question is asked, are INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

Examples: *Which* desk do you prefer? *What* book do you want? *Whose* house was burned?

But when the noun is omitted, *which*, *what*, and *whose* are interrogative, indefinite pronouns. (83 *b*.)

Examples: *Which* do you prefer? *What* do you want? *Whose* was that?

92. Indefinites.—*Each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *much*, *few*, *all*, *both*, and *no* are called INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES. Most of them answer the question *which?* or *how many?* in an indefinite way. When they are used as pronouns, as all of them are except *every*, they are indefinite. (83.)

(*a*) The interrogatives *which*, *whose*, and *what*, when used to modify nouns without asking questions, are *indefinites*.

Examples: He did not know *which* road to take. I do not know at *what* time he will arrive. She did not know *whose* advice to follow.

93. Pronominals.—We have seen that numerals (88), the demonstratives (89), the interrogatives (91), and the indefinites, except *every* (92), are sometimes used as pronouns. They are pronouns when they stand *alone to represent things*, but adjectives when they stand *with nouns* to limit them. On account of this double use, they are called PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES, or ADJECTIVE-PRONOUNS. [84 and 350.]

Furnish adjectives belonging to each of the classes mentioned in paragraphs 68 and 69.

94. How to distinguish Pronouns from Adjectives.—

(*a*) Sometimes an adjective is used without its noun to avoid the repetition of the noun in the same sentence; thus—

That piece is good, but *this* [piece] is better. Several boys applied, but only *three* [boys] were employed. *Which* [problem] of these problems did you solve? These plums are good, but *those* [plums] are better.

In such cases, the omitted nouns are said to be "understood." They can be supplied after their adjectives, from the same sentence. (351.)

(*b*) But when you cannot supply the noun (or pronoun) *from the same sentence*, the word that takes its place is a *pronoun.*

Examples: *These* are good, but *those* are better. *Each* was positive, but *neither* was right. *Many* are called, but *few* are chosen. *Which* do you prefer?

95. Tell *which* of the *italicized* words in *this* and the *following* sentences are adjectives, and *which* are pronouns:

1. Some persons think one *thing* and *some* think *another*. 2. Some persons work while *others* sleep. 3. *Many* believe *this* while only a *few* believe *that*. 4. Merchants compete with *each other* for our trade. 5. We have sold *several* of this kind and *a few* of the *other*. 6. If you know of *any* for sale, write to us at once. 7. Of all the goods we handle, *these* are the best. 8. In all our stock, we have *nothing* cheaper than *those*. 9. Our firm can now compete with *any* in the country. 10. Their prices compare favorably with *those* of other houses. 11. We cannot employ *any* but competent workers. 12. We handle *none* but first-class goods, and we guarantee satisfaction to *those* who buy of us. 13. They are kind to *all* in their employ. 14. We have a score of applications from *such* as he. 15. He thought while *others* talked. 16. *Each* blames the *other*. 17. She likes *this*, but I prefer the *other*. 18. *Both* made application, but *neither* was successful. 19. *Nothing* could please us better than *that*. 20. They watch *one another*, but *neither* thinks the *other* knows it. 21. We recommend the higher-priced machine, but we will furnish you *either*. 22. Either one *thing* or the *other* must be done. 23. First one *thing* and then *another* prevented my writing. 24. The *same* that has been said of *others* may be said of him. 25. *What* you say is true, but the same *thing* may be said of other business undertakings. 26. *Which* of the buildings have you leased? 27. *Which* of the *two* is the more business-like? 28. *What* are you going to do about it? 29. The latter plan should be adopted because the *former* is impracticable at this time. 30. The cry of danger to the Union was raised to divert their assaults upon the Constitution. It was the *latter* and not the *former* which was in danger.

LESSON 15.

KINDS OF VERBS.

96. We have already learned (4 *b*) that verbs are the words that do the asserting, and we have noticed the importance of this part-of-speech as an element. All the other parts of speech together cannot express a thought without the help of a verb. Indeed, the very importance of these words gave them their name in the first place; for, on account of their importance, the Latins, or Romans, used to call them VERBA, which meant '*the* word.' The verbs in our language have a certain difference of use which divides them into two general classes.

97. Transitive Verbs.—Some verbs require an object to show their full meaning; as—

The officer caught [the *thief*]. She found [a *purse*].
The player struck [the *ball*]. They have [a *piano*].

In these sentences, the italicized words in the brackets are called *objects*. They each name the person or object that receives the action expressed by the verb. (42.) And since the action passes from the subject over to the object, these verbs are said to be TRANSITIVE, which means 'going over.' You will notice that when we leave off the words in the brackets, the sentences are not complete; that is, there seems to be a part of the thought *unexpressed.*

(*a*) But not all transitive verbs require the object to be expressed, for many of them will make sense without it; thus—

Henry studies. She sang. The children played. He teaches.

Such expressions make sense, and are therefore sentences; yet the meaning of the verb can hardly be said to be complete, for we may reasonably ask (and often do) such questions as, 'Henry studies *what?*' 'He teaches *what?*' And the answer to the question would be the object of the verb; as—

'Henry studies *algebra*.' 'She sang *alto*.' 'The children played *croquet*.'

Hence, we conclude that though a transitive requires an object to complete its meaning, the object need not always be expressed.

98. Intransitive Verbs.—Many verbs denoting action do not require an object to complete their meaning. They express a meaning completely.

Examples: It grows. He laughs. The baby prattles. The boys quarrel.

We cannot turn these sentences into sensible questions and ask—

'It grows *what?*' 'He laughs *what?*' 'The baby prattles *what?*'

Such verbs as *grow*, *laugh*, *prattle*, *quarrel*, cannot take objects after them, and for this reason they are called INTRANSITIVE.

99. We have, then, these definitions:

1. **A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning,** *though the object may be unexpressed.*

2. **An intransitive verb cannot take an object.***

The same verb may be either transitive or intransitive, *according to the way it is used.*

Examples: The sun *melts* the snow. The snow *melts* rapidly. The farmer *burns* wood. That wood *burns* slowly.

100. How to tell Transitive from Intransitive Verbs.

(*a*) If the verb represents the subject as *acting*, read the predicate of the sentence and put the question *what?* after it. If it makes a sensible question, the verb is *transitive* and the answer to the question will be the *object.* (43.)

Examples: The girls study *what?* The lawyer charges *what?* The fisherman caught *what?* Farmers raise *what?*

(*b*) If the question *what?* would not make sense after the predicate, the verb is *intransitive.*

Examples: The stars *shine.* The water *flows.* She *lingers.* It *snows.* They *were sick* of it. That man *is reckless.* I *am happy.*

You see that it would not make a sensible question to put *what?* after these predicates; as—

The stars shine *what?* That man is reckless *what?*

*To this there is an exception which, however, should not be intruded at this point. (218.)

Note.—The last three examples in (*b*) have predicates consisting of a copula and an adjective. By applying the test to such sentences, you can see that copula verbs are always intransitive. The pure copula verbs are *be*, *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*. (16 *a*) Besides these, a few other intransitive verbs and verb-phrases are frequently used copulatively. The principal ones are *seem*, *appear*, *become*, *look*, *feel*, *taste*, *smell*, and the phrases formed by putting other verbs before them. (352.)

101. Passive Verb-phrases.—The object of a transitive verb may become the subject of a verb-phrase in a sentence expressing the same thought. Thus—

'The horse kicked that man,' may be changed to 'That man *was kicked* by the horse.'

In the last sentence, the form of the predicate shows that the subject *receives* the action. This is called the PASSIVE form of the predicate to distinguish it from the ACTIVE form given in the first sentence. (353.)

(*a*) The *active* form of assertion represents the subject as being the *actor*—the one acting; the *passive* form represents the subject as *receiving* the action. (*Passive* means 'receiving.')

102. Change the following predicates from the active to the passive form:

The cashier *counted* the money.	They *paid* their notes last week.
We *employed* two bookkeepers.	A stenographer *reported* the speeches.
The clerk's employer *discharged* him.	A committee *drafted* resolutions.

Parse the verbs in the sentences in paragraph 95, by telling which are *transitive* and which are *intransitive*.

Furnish verbs belonging to each of the classes mentioned in paragraphs 70 and 71.

Point out thirty verbs and verb-phrases in the fable on page 5.

LESSON 16.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

103. We have learned that as the words added to *nouns* to limit or qualify them are called 'adjectives,' so the words added to *verbs* to limit or modify them are called 'adverbs.' We have seen also that adverbs modify adjectives and other adverbs. (20.) They may modify even prepositions and conjunctions. (354.)

104. Instead of speaking of the *kinds* of adverbs, we shall consider them in classes, as answering the following questions:

How? When? Where? Why? How far? or *In what degree?*

(*a*) Adverbs answering *how?* are such as— or, so, thus, somehow, hastily.

(*b*) Answering to *when?* are such as— now, then, soon, there, never, hereafter, always, seldom, frequently.

(*c*) Answering to *where?* are— here, there, yonder, hence, down, out, above.

(*d*) Answering *why?* are— hence, therefore, accordingly.

(*e*) Answering the question *how far?* are— much, no, none, nothing almost, scarcely, hardly, quite, very, too, little, more, greatly.

Note.—The same adverb may, in different connections, answer the different questions according to its meaning.

(*f*) Still other adverbs cannot be said to answer any of these questions. They are such as— indeed, certainly, verily, truly, surely, not, perhaps, possibly.

Remark.—These last are sometimes called *modal adverbs* (*mode*, 'manner,') because they show the manner in which the assertion or statement is made. *Not* and *no* (also *none*) are sometimes called *negative adverbs.*

105. *How*, *when*, *where*, *why*, when used in asking questions (see examples above), are called *interrogative adverbs.* But these and certain other adverbs often become conjunctions without losing much, if any, of their adverbial force. They are then called *conjunctive-adverbs*, or *adverbial-conjunctions.*

106. Many adverbs are regularly made from nouns and adjectives by prefixes and suffixes (72), and they may generally be

known by their form. Furnish adverbs belonging to each of the classes mentioned in paragraphs 72 and 73.

(*a*) Some adjectives are used as adverbs without change of form; thus—

Better, little, late, far, hard, further, first, last, long, short, fast, much, more, high. (243, *Note.*) Some of these, however, at times take the ending *ly*, but with a change in meaning.

107. Certain phrases have come to be used and regarded as single adverbs. (73[7].) They are such as—

Of course, of late, for good, of old, at all, at length, ere long, in vain, in general, as usual, by and by, over and over, again and again, through and through, hand in hand, to and fro, up and down.

108. *Yes* and *no* were formerly used as adverbs, but they are no longer regarded as such, being in themselves complete answers. (355.)

(*a*) The adverbial force of *there* is lost when that word is used as an indefinite subject of a sentence; (31, *Note*) as—

There is some mistake about it. *There* were none there.

(*b*) *So*, *well*, and *why* also lose their adverbial force when used merely to introduce sentences.

109. Nouns denoting *time*, *distance*, *measure*, *value*, or *direction* are also used adverbially to qualify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. (217.)

Example: They were gone a *month* and travelled a thousand *miles*. (79 *e*)

Point out the adverbs in the sentences at (*b*), paragraph 40, and those in the fable on page 71, telling what question each one answers. Also point out the *adverbial nouns* in the sentences in paragraph 217.

LESSON 17.

KINDS OF CONJUNCTIONS.

110. Co-ordinate.—We have noticed the use of the conjunctions to connect *compound elements* and *compound sentences*. The words most commonly used in this way are—

and, but, or, nor,

and they are called CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS (*co-ordinate*) means 'of equal rank or order.') By turning to Lesson 8, you will see that these words, '*and*,' '*but*,' '*or*,' '*nor*,' are used to connect words, phrases and sentences of the same *kind* or *rank*. For instance, in the first sentence, (49)—

Checks *and* drafts are cashed,

the word *drafts* is just as much the subject as *checks*, but no more so. Either of these words can be omitted and the other will make a subject for the sentence. This shows that the words are of equal importance, or of the same rank in the sentence, neither one depending upon the other. In the same manner, *ride* and *walk* (2d sentence, 49), words of the same kind (*verbs*) are connected by *or*, and the same word is used (6th sentence) to connect the two adjectival phrases, 'in gold' and 'in bank-notes.' Likewise, the word *but* connects (50) the simple sentences—

They all went to the picnic *but* I stayed at home and worked.

And since neither of these sentences depends on the other for its meaning, they are of the same rank; therefore *but* is a *co-ordinate conjunction*.

(*a*) Besides those given above, the following co-ordinate conjunctions are more or less used: Also, accordingly, besides, consequently, else, furthermore, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, notwithstanding, otherwise, so, still, then, therefore, yet, etc.

Note.—It must be understood, however, that these words are not always conjunctions, for some of them, at times, are pure adverbs (105.)

111. Subordinate.—A great many of our conjunctions are used in a way quite different from *and*, *but*, *or*, and *nor*, as explained above. To illustrate, take the following sentence:

He paid the bill *before* it was due.

Here we have two statements joined together by the word *before;* but you will notice that the second statement, 'it was due,' is used to tell something about the first. It answers the question *when?* in reference to his paying the bill. We have seen (104 *b*) that words answering the question *when?* are adverbs; therefore the statement 'it was due' must have an adverbial use in this sentence.

To make the above still more clear, let us take the sentence,

He paid the bill *promptly*,

in which the word 'promptly' is an adverb modifying the verb 'paid,' and answering the question *when?*

Now by expanding *promptly* into a phrase, we have—

He paid the bill *on time*,

and the phrase answers the same question, *when?*

Again, we may expand the phrase by saying—

He paid the bill *when it was due*,

which shows clearly that the statement '*it was due*' is an adverbial element modifying *paid*, and it is connected with that word by *when*, a conjunctive-adverb. (105.)

(*a*) But there is one difference between this adverbial element, '*it was due*,' and the other elements we have learned about; it contains a subject and predicate of its own. *It* is the subject, and *was due* the predicate. But it is not a sentence; it is only an element in a longer sentence. When an element of a sentence contains within itself a *subject* and *predicate*, it is called a **clause**, and the word that connects it to the word it modifies is called a SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTION. You may generally know a subordinate conjunction by the fact that it introduces a clause that will answer some one of the questions usually answered by adverbs. (22.)

112. The most common subordinate conjunctions are—

1. Those denoting *time*—answering *when? how long? how often?*

Examples: When, while, as, before, ere, since, after, whenever, till, until.

2. Those denoting *place*—answering *where?* as, Where, whence, whither.

3. Those expressing *reason*—answering *why?*

Examples: Because, for, since, as, so, wherefore, that, lest.

As also expresses manner—answering *how?* Example: You do *as* I do.

4. Those expressing *condition*—answering *on what condition?*

Examples: If, unless, except, provided.

5. *As* and *than* are called "conjunctions of comparison."

113. Certain conjunction-phrases (76 *a*) are also adverbially used and are to be regarded as adverbial conjunctions. They are—

As if, as though, but also, but likewise, whether or, so that, except that, inasmuch as, notwithstanding that, as if though, in order that, as well as, (357 *a*,) as far as, so far as, as little as, etc.

Write sentences, using the above-mentioned conjunctions and phrases.

114. Correlatives.—Certain words (adverbs and adjectives) when used to introduce compound elements, require certain conjunctions to follow them to connect those elements. Thus—

Both is followed by *and;* as— *Both* (adj.) wheat *and* corn are exported. He was *both* (adv.) hasty *and* unwise.

Either is followed by *or; neither* by *nor*; as— *Either* (adj.) James *or* John will go. He was always *either* (adv.) too fast *or* too slow. *Neither* (adj.) he *nor* I knew your intentions. It is *neither* (adv.) too warm *nor* too cold.

Words used in pairs in this way are called CORRELATIVES ('having mutual relation,') and the last word of the pair is called a *correlative conjunction.* (357 *b.*)

Other correlative conjunctions with the words they follow are: Not—nor, as—as, so—as, if—then, though—yet, not only—but, as well—as, etc.

115. *That* when used as a pure conjunction means 'in order that;' as,

They fought *that* they might have peace.

[For other uses of *that*, see paragraphs 85 *f* and 123 *a.*]

116. Conjunctions are used to *introduce* sentences and connect them in thought to what goes before. The words most used in this way are the co-ordinates, *and* and *but*, and the subordinates, *so*, *for*, *now*, *then*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *so then*, etc.

Point out the conjunctions in the fables in paragraphs 86 and 172.

LESSON 18.

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

To the Teacher.—The full analysis of complex sentences should not be taken up until the work of this lesson has been gone over in outline. [See directions concerning analysis, paragraphs 124–5.]

117. We saw in our last lesson that clauses may be used to modify or limit a verb, the same as an adverb or adverbial phrase. Such a clause, then, is an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.

Adverbial clauses generally express some fact as to *time*, *place*, *reason*, *manner*, etc., answering to the questions *when? where? why? how?* etc. They are connected to the word they modify by subordinate conjunctions, or by conjunctive adverbs (105); as—

They have paid it *since* you saw them.
The train arrived *while* we were standing there.
It happened just *as* we were leaving.
She found the letter *where* she had left it.
He did *as* he was told *because* he was threatened.
I must go *as* (because) they will need my assistance.
They will depend upon you, *therefore* you must go.
They will pay the check *if* you present it promptly.
We will prepay the charges *provided* cash accompanies the order.

118. Adjectival Clauses.—Clauses may also be used to take the place of adjectives or adjectival phrases limiting nouns or pronouns; thus—

Conscientious men are needed in every walk of life.
Men *of conscience* are needed in every walk of life.
Men *who are conscientious* are needed in every walk of life.

The adjective 'conscientious' in the first sentence is expanded into an adjectival phrase in the second, and into a clause in the third. So the clause, 'who are conscientious,' does the work of an adjective, and is, therefore, an ADJECTIVAL CLAUSE.

(*a*) Change the adjectival clauses in the following sentences into phrases, or reduce them to single words:

A thing that is beautiful is a joy forever.
A tree that has no leaves has but little beauty.
Some men that are wealthy are yet very poor.
A person who is hopeful looks on the side that is bright.
A man who is fearless always defends a cause that is righteous.

119. Notice that adjectival clauses begin with the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, and *that;* and while they serve as connective elements (joining the subordinate clauses to the words they limit), these relatives are also used as the subjects in the subordinate clauses. But they are not always so used; they are quite frequently used as objects of verbs or prepositions; thus—

Are these the books *that* you selected?
This is the one to *which* I referred.
He is the man of *whom* I was speaking.
There are few men of *whom* that can be said.
It was a sight the like of *which* I had never seen.
That is the house in *which* he formerly lived.

120. Subordinate clauses are used not only as adjectival and adverbial elements, but they are also freely used to take the place of nouns. And this they do in any place in the sentence, except as a possessive modifier—that is, we may have a subject clause, a predicate clause, or an object clause; but we do not have possessive clauses. Clauses used as subject or object elements, or in the predicate after copula verbs, are **noun clauses,** because they occupy the place usually occupied by nouns.

121. Examples of noun clauses used as subjects:

That he is honest is admitted by all.
That the boy is innocent is the general opinion.
That the undertaking will be a success is doubted by many.
That the note was fraudulently obtained was the defense.

122. Noun clauses used as objects:

All admit that he is honest.
He told me that you were expecting to go.
Do you know who called yesterday?
He talked to me about what had happened.

123. Noun clauses in the predicate:

The general opinion is that the boy is honest.
The results are not what we expected.
His defense was that the note was fraudulently obtained.

Remark.—We shall find farther on that noun clauses are used in still another way. (212.)

(*a*) *That* is used in a peculiar way to introduce noun clauses. [See examples above.] In such cases it is neither a conjunction nor a relative pronoun, but merely an introductory word (31, *Note*) used before the clause in much the same way that *the* and *an* are used before nouns. (358.)

124. Complex Sentences.—Sentences containing noun clauses, adverbial clauses, or adjectival clauses are called COMPLEX SENTENCES. If a compound sentence (50 *a*) contains such a clause it is called a *compound-complex* sentence.

Note.—In analyzing complex sentences, first treat the whole subordinate clause as though it were a single word (a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, as the case may be); then analyze the subordinate clause as if it were a sentence by itself.

125. Analyze the complex sentences given in paragraphs 117 to 123 of this lesson; then analyze the sentences given in paragraph 95. Point out the complex sentences and tell how the subordinate clauses are used in the following story:

JUDGE GRAMMAR'S COURT.

Now, as some of these Parts-of-Speech have more words than others, and as they all like to have as many as they can get, it follows, I am sorry to say, that they are rather given to quarreling; and so it happened one day, when my story begins, they made so much noise, wrangling and jangling in the court, that they woke Judge Grammar up from a long and very comfortable nap.

"What is all this about?" he growled out, angrily. "Brother Parsing! Dr. Syntax! here!"

In an instant the Judge's two learned counsellors were by his side.

Sergeant Parsing ("Brother Parsing," the Judge calls him,) has a sharp nose, bright eyes, a little round wig with a tail to it, and an eye-glass. He is very quick and cunning in finding out who people are and what they mean, and making them tell "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." It is of no use to say "I don't know" to Sergeant Parsing. He will question you, and question you, till somehow or other he makes you know, for that is his business, and that is why Judge Grammar summoned him. Whenever there is a fuss in Grammarland, Sergeant Parsing has to find out all about it, and Dr. Syntax has to say what is right or wrong, according to the law.

"Brother Parsing," said the Judge, "this racket must be stopped. What are they fighting about? I divided the words clearly enough once amongst the Parts-of-Speech. Why cannot they keep the peace?"

"My lord," answered Sergeant Parsing, "the fact is that it is a long time since you portioned out the words, and the Parts-of-Speech since then have been left to do pretty much as they like. Some of them are greedy, and have stolen their neighbors' words. Some of them have got hold of new words, which others say they had no right to make; and some of them are even inclined to think that Dr. Syntax is old-fashioned, and needs not be obeyed. In fact, unless your lordship takes the matter in hand at once, I fear the good old laws of Grammarland will all go to wreck and ruin."

"That must never be," said the Judge, solemnly shaking his wig, "that must never be. We must stop it at once. Go and summon all my court before me."

Away went Sergeant Parsing, as quick as thought, and soon the whole court was assembled. There was Judge Grammar on his throne, with a long flowing wig and gorgeous robes. At the table below him, sat his two counsellors, Sergeant Parsing and Dr. Syntax. Dr. Syntax is very tall and thin and dark. He has a long, thin neck, covered up with a stiff black tie which looks as though it nearly choked him. When he speaks he stands up, looks straight through his spectacles, sticks out his chin, and says his say in a gruff and melancholy voice, as if he were repeating a lesson. He is the terror of all little boys, for he never smiles, and he is so very, very old, that people say he never was young like other folks; that when he was a baby he always cried in Greek, and that his first attempt at talking was in Latin. However that may be, there he sat, side by side with Sergeant Parsing, while the children from Schoolroom-shire, armed with slates and pencils, prepared to listen to the examination that was to take place, and the Parts-of-Speech crowded together at the end of the court, waiting for their names to be called. *

* Abridged from the Introduction to "*Grammarland or Grammar in fun for the Children of Schoolroom-shire*," a little work by M. L. Nesbitt; published by Henry Holt & Co., New York.

LESSON 19.

FORM-CHANGE.

126. We have learned to tell the parts of speech by examining a sentence and finding out what each word does. We have seen also (63) how one part-of-speech may be changed to another by making some addition to it, so as to make it really a new word. Now there is another kind of change sometimes made in a word, not to form a new word, but to make the same word express another idea. Thus, we say—

'Horse,' 'man,' 'peach,' 'book,' 'knife,'

when we wish to express the idea of only one of each object mentioned; but when we want to express the idea of more than one of them, we say—

'Horses,' 'men, 'peaches,' 'books,' 'knives.'

127. Again, some words are changed in form to make them "agree" with other words in the same sentence. Thus, we say—

'The horse *runs*,' but 'the horses *run*;'
'The man *reads*,' but 'the men *read*;'
'*This* peach *is* ripe,' but 'these peaches *are* ripe;'
'The book *was* sold,' but 'the books *were* sold;'
'That knife *is* sharp,' and not 'those knives *is* sharp.'

You will notice that the verbs 'runs,' 'reads,' 'is,' and 'was,' have been changed in form to *run*, *read*, *are*, and *were*. We make this change in the form of the verb, not because we want to change the meaning, but because the nouns being changed so as to mean *more than one*, the verbs are changed to make them agree with the subject. Changing the forms of words to change their meaning, or to make them agree with each other, is done to some extent with each part-of-speech except prepositions and conjunctions. We are now ready to study the form-changes of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs. (359.)

NOUN-FORMS.

128. Number Form.—As we have seen above (126), nouns are changed in form to denote the idea of more than one; as—

Note, *notes;* tree, *trees;* match, *matches;* calf, *calves;* berry, *berries.*

Since these different forms of the noun show whether we are speaking of one or a greater number of things, they are called *number-forms.*

The form that indicates *one* is called the SINGULAR form (or "singular number,") and the form that indicates more than one is called the PLURAL form (or "plural number").

Note.—The word "singular" comes from *single*, meaning *one.* While the word "plural" is derived from *plus*, meaning *more.*

129. The usual or **regular** way of making the plural form of nouns is by adding *s* or *es* to the singular form.

(*a*) Examples of plurals formed by adding *s:* boat, boats; field, fields; day, days.

(*b*) Nouns whose plurals are formed by adding *es* belong to two groups:

1. Words ending with the sound of *s* (soft), *x* or *z;* as, dress, dresses; ax, axes; friz, frizes. [The word '*ox*' is an exception, the plural being *oxen.*]

2. Words ending with the sound of *ch* or *sh;* as, bench, benches; gash, gashes.

(*c*) Some words ending with *o* form the plural by adding *es;* as, motto, mottoes; potato, potatoes; others (particularly musical terms) ending with *o* add only *s;* as, piano, pianos; banjo, banjos.

130. Irregular Plural Forms.—While most of our nouns form their plurals in the regular way, (by adding *s* or *es*,) others form them irregularly, that is, by some other change in the form of the word. Of these last, there are the following groups:

1. Most nouns ending with *f* or *fe*, change f to v, and then add *s* or *es;* as, half, halves; life, lives; knife, knives. But some words ending with *f* or *fe* form the plural in the regular way, that is, by adding only *s* to the singular, without changing the *f*; thus, chiefs, gulfs, strifes.

2. Many nouns ending with *y*, and having a consonant letter before the *y*, change the *y* into *i*, and add *es;* as, city, cities; fly, flies; etc.; but if the *y* has a vowel (a, e, i, o, or u,) before it, the plural is regularly formed by adding only *s* without changing the *y;* as, day, days; boy, boys; turkey, turkeys.

3. A few words form their plurals by a change in the middle of the word; as, man, men; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice. These words are said to form their plurals irregularly. Similar to them are, brother, brethren; child, children.

131. The plurals of letters, figures, and signs are indicated by an apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s); as—

Learn the 7's and 9's. Dot your i's and cross your t's, and do not make the u's and u's, the 3's and 5's, and the +'s and x's so much alike.

132. There are some nouns that do not have a number-form, the same form being used to denote one or several of the same objects; as, sheep, trout, deer. Others always have a plural form, but a singular meaning; as, shears, ashes, clothes.

[For the plurals of proper nouns, titles, and compound nouns, see 360.]

133. Write the following nouns in a column, then beside them, in another column, write the plurals of those that have a plural form. When the plural of a noun is not formed in the regular way, tell which exception it comes under.

Chair, fife, class, inch, pass, table, dish, salmon, shelf, wife, frame, draft, dash, wrench, cashier, window, sky, alley, ally, deputy, toy, woman, grass, enemy, towel, hose, roof, heathen, soprano, boy, neighbor, ship, mumps, shoe, loaf, girl, sheaf, tax, cargo, tomato, theory, molasses, chimney, handful, wages, artery, spoonful, veto, bucketful, door, Englishman, Mexican, victuals, measles, daughter-in-law, son-in-law, man-of-war, Miss Allen, Mr. Green and Mr. Williams, attorney-at-law. [Keep this list for future use.]

134. As already mentioned (64² *a*), a few nouns are changed in form to distinguish the feminine (female) sex from the masculine (male) sex. The feminine form of these words is generally made by the addition of *ess* as a suffix to the masculine word.

Examples: Prince, princess; heir, heiress; poet, poetess; waiter, waitress.

Remark.—As this class of words is small and becoming smaller, the change in their form to denote sex is of little or no importance. With the more common of them, especially those denoting occupations, what we have called the masculine form, as poet, waiter, actor, tailor, doctor, etc., is now much used for both sexes. (361.)

135. Possessive Form.—Another change is made in the form of nouns when we wish to show who or what owns (or 'possesses') a thing. Thus, we write—

(*a*) John's hat, the boy's slate, the man's arm, the clerk's salary.

(*b*) Mr. Bell's farm, Mr. Willis's store, Mrs. Adams's daughter.

(*c*) Those girls' dresses are pretty; the clerks' salaries were increased.

(*d*) The soldiers' reunion; the Teachers' Association; Odd Fellows' Hall.

And because this form of the noun denotes possession, it is called the *possessive form.* [Or, possessive "case." See 362.]

Note.—The possessive form of a noun is used adjectively to limit the common form of another noun.

Notice—in (*a*) and (*b*) above—that the possessive form is made by adding the apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s) to singular nouns. When the noun is plural, ending in *s*, only the apostrophe is added as shown in (*c*) and (*d*).

When plural nouns do not end with *s*, their posessive forms are made by adding the apostrophe the same as singular nouns; as, 'They sell men's and children's clothing.'

136. Joint and Separate Possession.—When we wish to show that a thing belongs to two or more persons who are joint owners of it, we add the possessive sign to the last word only; thus—

Mason & Hamlin's organs; Lee & Shepard's price list; Fenton, Fell & Co.'s store.

(*a*) **Separate Possession.**—If it is separate ownership that we wish to denote, we place the possessive sign after each name; as, Shaw's and Davis's pianos, Lee's and Grant's armies.

137. Possessive Phrases.—The possessive sign with a noun-phrase (65^{7}) is added to the last word; thus—

The Queen of England's body-guard; my brother-in-law's house; the sergeant-at-arm's pay.

[For the possessive of nouns in apposition, see 363.]

138. Instead of using the possessive forms of the names of inanimate ('without life') things, we generally denote possession, or 'belonging to,' by a phrase; thus, we say—

'The legs of the chair,' instead of 'the chair's legs;'
'The tail of his coat,' instead of 'his coat's tail;'
'The hands of the clock,' instead of 'the clock's hands.'

Take the list of words prepared according to the instructions in paragraph 133, and add the sign of possession to both

the singular and plural forms of all those that will admit of a possessive form to modify a noun.

Example: The cashier's desk, the cashiers' desks; the shelf's edge, the shelves' edges.

Note.—When the possessive form gives an awkward construction, as in the last example, change it to a possessive phrase; as, the edge of the shelf, the edges of the shelves.

139. Instead of using two possessive forms together, it is better to change one of them into a phrase; thus, "My friend's father's farm," should be, "The farm of my friend's father," or "The farm owned by my friend's father."

Correct the errors in the plural and possessive forms in the following:

1. The man's hand was caught in the machine's wheels. 2. The baby's foots were burned. 3. The clerks salarys have been paid. 4. The churchs' doors are open to you. 5. The rakes tooths were broken. 6. The ships sailes were rent. 7. The hunter's dogs' foots were hurt by the traps' teeths. 8. The notes' face was paid. 9. The factorys have been closed. 10. The ministers childs are both sick. 11. Boys hats are sold here. 12. Henrys slate was broken. 13. They paid him for a weeks work. 14. A full line of gentlemens furnishings always on hand. 15. Webster and Worcesters' dictionaries. 16. Barnum's and Baileys' show.

LESSON 20.

PRONOUN-FORMS.

140. Number Form.—A part of our pronouns, like nouns, have a number-form to show whether we mean one or more than one. To illustrate, let us take the simple personal pronouns, (80.)

	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.	THIRD PERSON.
Singular	*I*,	*you*,	*he*, *she*, *it*.
Plural	*we*,	*you*,	*they*.

Notice that the pronoun *you* does not have a plural form different from the singular, and that the third person pronouns, *he*, *she*, and *it*, have the same plural form. Thus, in speaking of one man, we say *he*, but in speaking of two

or more, we say *they*. In speaking of one woman we say *she*, and when referring to two or more women, we say *they*. In the same manner, *it* refers to one object, but when we refer to more than one object, we say *they*.

141. Possessive Form.—Like nouns, the pronouns have also a possessive form, which we use to show that an object belongs to such and such a person or thing; as, *my* coat, *our* eyes, *your* task, *her* book, *his* home, *its* foot, *their* hands. [See 81 *a*.]

142. With the exception of *his*, the possessive forms given above are always followed by the noun which they limit, hence they are sometimes called *possessive adjectives*.

(*a*) But the following possessive forms are used by themselves: *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, and (sometimes) *his*, and *whose*.

One peculiar thing about these last possessive forms is that they can be used as either subjects or objects, or in the predicate. This is because they represent both the possessor (owner) and the thing possessed; as—

Hers is the best; These books are *hers*; I sold *mine*;
What did you give for *yours*? *Whose* is it? It is *his*.

(*b*) *Mine* and *thine* were formerly much used as possessive adjectives, especially in the Bible and other sacred writing, poems, etc. They are still sometimes used in poetry and solemn address.

Examples: "Thine shall be the glory forever and ever."
"Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord."

143. Object Form.—Pronouns have another form which nouns do not have. A noun has the same form when we use it as the object of a verb or preposition that it has when used for the subject; but with pronouns it is not so, at least with a part of them it is not, for some of them have a different form when they are used as objects; as—

I like *him*. He likes *me*. She came to *us*. We went to *her*. They saw *you*. You saw *them*. They lost *it*. It was good for *them*.

(*a*) Since the forms *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*, are used as the objects of verbs denoting action or possession, or after prepositions, they are called *object forms*, or *objective forms*. (48 and 81.)

Remark.—Notice that *her* is both objective and possessive (141), and that *you* and *it* have no object-form; that is, they have the same form for objects that they have for subjects. (362 *b*.)

(*b*) Besides the five personal pronouns, there is only one pronoun that has an object form, and that is the relative *who*. Its object form is *whom*. It has also a possessive form, *whose*. (82 *a*.)

Remark.—We have seen (17) that pronouns, as well as nouns, may be used with copula verbs to make a predicate. When so used, they have the same form that they have when used for the subject. So **the subject forms and predicate forms of pronouns are the same.**

144. We have, then, the following object forms: *me*, *us*, *her*, *him*, *them*, and *whom*, to distinguish them from the subject and predicate forms, *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, *they*, and *who*.

You will not find it very difficult to use these last forms correctly, but most persons make mistakes by using object forms where they should use the subject and predicate forms. They will say—

'It was me,' 'It is him,' 'It was not her,' 'It isn't them,'

when they should say—

'It was I,' 'It is he,' 'It was not she,' 'It isn't they.'

Remember that the subject and predicate forms are alike.

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences:

Me and him go to the same school. I knew it was her.
It was me and him who made the mistake.
Are you sure it was them? Who told you it was us?

Remember that the object forms should be used after prepositions, and after verbs denoting action or possession.

Correct the mistakes in the following:

You and her ought to have gone with we.
They came expecting to see you and I.

[For further practice, see paragraph 234.]

(*a*) The compounds formed by adding the word *self* (plural *selves*) to *my*, *our*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them* (67[1]), are sometimes used as objects in a peculiar way. (218 *b*.)

(*b*) Other compounds are made by combining the relatives *who* and *which* and the indefinite *what*, with *ever* or *soever*; as, whoever, whatever.

Form all the compounds you can with the words given above, using each one in a sentence constructed off-hand.

Point out all the personal pronouns in the fable in paragraph 162, and tell whether they have the *common* (subject and predicate) form, the *object* form, or the *possessive* form.

LESSON 21.

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

145. Comparison.—Adjectives are changed in form to show different degrees of quality; as—

Brave, braver, bravest; sweet, sweeter, sweetest; sharp, sharper, sharpest.

Thus, we say—

'The brave soldier;' 'the sweet apple;' 'the sharp knife.'

But if we wish to compare others of the same kind with these objects, we say—

'A braver soldier;' 'a sweeter apple;' 'a sharper knife.'

Again, comparing an object with all others of its kind, we say—

'The bravest soldier;' 'the sweetest apple;' 'the sharpest knife.'

146. This change in the form of adjectives, to compare one thing with another, or one thing with all others of the same kind, we call COMPARISON.

(*a*) The simple form of the adjective is called the **positive** degree; as—*brave, sweet, sharp.*

(*b*) The form made by adding *r* or *er* is the **comparative** degree; as—*braver, sweeter, sharper.*

(*c*) The form made by adding *st* or *est* is the **superlative** degree; as—*bravest, sweetest, sharpest.* (*Superlative* means 'highest.')

(*d*) Adjectives ending with *y* change *y* into *i* and then add *er* and *est* to form the comparative and superlative degrees; as, lazy, lazier, laziest.

147. Comparison by Phrases.—The foregoing rules apply chiefly to words of one syllable. Most adjectives of two or more syllables, and especially those ending with *ly*, are not compared by a change of form. Such adjectives form their comparative degree by prefixing *more*, and the superlative degree by prefixing *most*, to the positive degree; thus, careful, more careful, most careful.

(*a*) **Descending Comparison.**—Sometimes adjectives are given a descending ('going down') comparison by means of phrases formed by prefixing *less* and *least* to the positive degree; as, careful, less careful, least careful. Prefixing *less* gives the comparative degree—a degree lower than the positive; but prefixing *least* does not give the superlative degree, for *superlative* (from *super-* 'above;' *lative*, 'to carry,') means 'carried to the highest degree,' while *least* expresses the *lowest* degree. Instead of calling this lowest degree 'superlative,' we shall call it the *sublative* (*sub-* 'under' or 'below;' *lative*, 'to carry.')

148. The following adjectives are irregularly compared: [*Commit to memory.*]

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good,	better,	best.
bad, ill, evil,	worse,	worst.
little,	less,	least.
much, many,	more,	most.

Remarks.—*Old*, *late*, and *near*, are sometimes given an irregular comparison; thus—elder, eldest; latter, last; nearer, next.

There are a few other irregular comparisons in which the comparative and superlative degrees are based upon an adverb or a noun representing the positive, the superlative being generally made by the suffix *most*.

Examples: Up, upper, uppermost; in, inner, inmost or innermost; under (no comparative), undermost; top (no comparative), topmost.

149. Some adjectives do not admit comparison;* as,—full, empty, level, round, square, universal, supreme, infinite.

Form the comparatives and superlatives or sublatives of the following: Short, old, heavy, long, wavy, sad, happy, quiet, smooth, sly, rough, cute, frequently, cold, rapidly, warm, savage, angry, course, dull, stingy, close, light, sensitive, hasty, nice, business-like, gracious, shrewd, intelligent, thoughtful.

*Except by a sort of "poetic license," not admissible in ordinary, every-day speech.

Note.—Never use the phrase and suffix forms of comparison together; as, more carefuller, less carefuller; most laziest, least laziest; more happier, less happier; most happiest, least happiest. This is called "double comparison."

Correct the following:

1. I never saw a more honester man, and he is the most hardest worker in town. 2. A more pleasanter face. 3. The most miserablest person. 4. A less abler lawyer. 5. The most wisest judge. 6. The least severest storm of the season. [For further practice, see paragraph 244.]

150. Two adjectives, *this* and *that*, have a change of form to agree with the number of the nouns they limit. Thus, we say—

This book, *these* books; that building, *those* buildings. [See 245.]

(*a*) The adjective *an* (indefinite article) changes its form to suit the first sound of the word following it, when that word begins with a consonant sound. Thus, we say—

An ox, an apple, an egg, an officer, an heir, an infant, an excuse;

and in each of these cases you will notice that the word following *an* begins with a vowel sound. But when we use this 'article' before words beginning with a consonant sound, we drop the *n;* thus—

A man, a variety, a citizen, a position, a letter, a bookkeeper. [See 245 *a*.]

ADVERBS.

151. A few adverbs are compared the same as adjectives.

The following form the comparative and superlative degrees in the regular way, by adding *r*, *er; st*, *est; soon*, *early*, *late*, *often*, *fast.* Most adverbs ending with *ly* express their comparative and superlative or sublative degrees by prefixing *more* and *most;* as, easily, gladly, quickly, bravely, formerly, roughly.

The following adverbs are compared irregularly: [*Memorize.*]

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
well,	better,	best.
badly,	worse,	worst.
far,	further,	furthest.
	farther,	farthest.
little,	less,	least.
much,	more,	most.

Note.—*Further* means 'more;' *farther* has reference to distance.

LESSON 22.

VERB-FORMS.

152. Number-Form.—We have already seen that when the subject is changed from the singular to the plural form, the verb is changed to agree with it. And since the plural form of the verb asserts the same action, possession, or existence that the singular form does, the change in the verb-form is made for no other reason than to make it agree with the subject. (127.)

The verb itself cannot express number; but since it must change its form to agree with the number of the subject, we speak of it as having *singular* and *plural* forms.

153. Unlike nouns, verbs (except the copulas) get their singular from the plural form. The plural form of a verb is its simplest form; and because all its other forms are derived from it, this plural form is called the *root-form*. The singular form is made by adding *s* or *es* to the plural, changing final *y* preceded by a consonant into *i* before making the addition.

Example: The flowers bloom,—the flower blooms; men go,—the man goes; birds fly,—the bird flies; merchants buy and sell,—the merchant buys and sells.

Have, which denotes possession, has an irregular singular form,—*has*. The copula verbs form their plurals irregularly; thus—

SINGULAR, *be, am, is, was;* PLURAL, *are, were.*

In the sentences in paragraph 36, change the singular subjects to the plural form and the plural to singular forms, changing the verb-form in each case accordingly. Do the same with the sentences at (*b*), paragraph 40.

Notice that when the plural *we* is changed to the singular *I*, the form of the verb remains unchanged except when the verb is *are* or *were*.

Correct the following errors:

1. The boys is very careless. 2. The girls was glad. 3. We was there first. 4. The clerks earns their wages. 5. They was not invited. 6. Good bookkeepers is well paid. 7. The clouds has disappeared. [See 249 for further practice.]

154. When either *who*, *which*, or *that* is the subject of a relative clause, the verb must agree in number with the antecedent of the relative. But when *who*, *which*, and *what* are used in asking questions, the number-form of the verb will depend upon whether the question is asked about one thing or more than one.

Correct the following:

Every man that are guilty should be punished.
The people who is sick need sympathy.
Can you name the boys who was there?

[For further practice, see paragraphs 251 and 252.]

155. If two or more nouns or pronouns of singular form are joined by *and* to form a compound subject, the plural form of the verb should be used; thus—

John and Henry *were* chosen. Silver and gold *are* precious metals.

Correct the following:

He and James was there. The boy and his father is sick. Iron, tin, and copper is important articles of commerce.

[For further practice, and other facts about the agreement of the verb with compound subjects, see paragraph 250.]

156. The mistakes made in the use of verbs are largely due to getting the plural form of the *verb* confused with the plural form of the *noun*. Having found that nouns form their plurals by adding *s* or *es*, we are apt to use this *s* or *es* form for the plurals of verbs also. But you will notice that verbs are just the opposite of nouns in this respect. (129 and 153.)

(*a*) Use each of the following verbs correctly in a short sentence, and tell which have the *singular* and which *plural* forms; do not use the pronoun *I* for a subject:

Walks, leaps, strikes, go, falls, shines, do, sell, buys, repeat, rejoice, cries, talks, live, sings, write, teach, catches, watch, learns, look, grows.

157. Person-Form.—When *I* is used for the subject of verbs of action or possession, the plural form of the verb should be used just the same as with the plurals *we*, *you*, and *they*; as—

We look. You look. They look. I look. They have. I have.

158. Since it cannot be said that the verb takes the *plural* form to make it agree with the *singular* subject *I*, the form that it takes in this case is really not the number-form but a person-form. Hence, we may say that verbs have a person-form to agree with the pronoun of the first person singular number; **and this first-person form is the plural form of the verb.**

159. There is, however, one verb of which it is not true that the plural form is used with *I*. This word is **be,** and it has a distinct form (**am**) for the pronoun *I*. *Be* is the most troublesome word in our language. From it are derived five copulas in common use: *Am, is, are, was,* and *were.* (364.)

The copula verbs (except *be*), with the different persons and numbers, are shown by the following table: [*Commit to memory.*]

(*a*) PRESENT TIME.	(*b*) PAST TIME.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. I *am*—sad.	1. I *was*—sad.
2. You *are*—glad.	2. You *were*—glad.
3. He *is*—mad.	3. He *was*—mad.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. We *are*—sad.	1. We *were*—sad.
2. You *are*—glad.	2. You *were*—glad.
3. They *are*—mad.	3. They *were*—mad.

Tell which of the verbs in the sentences in paragraph 95 have the singular form and which the plural form.

LESSON 23.

P. 113 - 114 VERB-FORMS—CONTINUED.

160. Time-Form.—The copula verbs in the last lesson were arranged in two columns, (*a*) and (*b*). Those in the left-hand column mean *now*, therefore they are headed PRESENT TIME. Those in the right-hand column mean *time that has passed*, therefore they are headed PAST TIME. For instance, if we say—

'I am sad,' 'You are glad,' 'He, she, or it, is mad,' 'We are sad,' etc.,

the form of the verb shows that *now* is when I, you, she, it, we, and they, are glad, sad, or mad. But when we say—

'I was sad,' 'You were glad,' 'He was mad,' 'We were sad,' 'They were,' etc.,

the forms of the verb, *was* and *were*, show that the *time* of our sadness, gladness, and madness, is not *now*, but that it has passed.

(*a*) The difference in the forms of the verb in the first column is not made to show difference of *time*, for *am*, *are*, and *is*, alike express *present* time. *Am* and *is* differ from each other because they denote different *persons;* while *are* differs from both of them because it is plural in form to agree with its subject.

But in the second column, (*b*), *am* and *is* are changed to *was*, and *are* is changed to *were*, to denote a different time. So then, *was* and *were* are changes of the verb *be*, to express *past* time.

161. The simple ('root') form of a verb when used by itself, (that is, when not combined with other verbs in verb-phrases) denotes *present* time. When we wish to express *past* time, we do it by making a change in the form of the verb; thus—

PRESENT TIME. { *I, we, you, they,*—hope, wait, run, see, sleep, spend.
He, she, it,—hopes, waits, runs, sees, sleeps, spends.

PAST TIME. { *I, he, she, it, We, you, they,* }—hoped, waited, ran, saw, slept, spent.

Notice that the past time form is not always made in the same way. In the first word, it is made by adding *d* to the root, *hope*, forming *hoped*. In the second, it is formed by adding *ed* to *wait*, giving *waited*. The next two are formed by a change of the vowel in the middle of the word: *run*, *ran; see*, *saw*. The fifth is formed by dropping one of the vowels and adding *t* at the close. The last is formed by changing final *d* to *t*.

Note.—These two time-forms of verbs are usually called their present and past "tenses." *Tense*, from *tempus*, means 'time,'—the time of being, action, or possession. These two are the only tenses that a verb has. (173 and 180–1–2.)

162. Verbs whose past forms are made by simply adding *d* or *ed* to the root-form, like *hope* and *wait*, are said to form them "regularly," and are called REGULAR VERBS. Verbs whose past time forms are not made by adding *d* or *ed* to the root-form are said to be IRREGULAR VERBS. These irregular verbs form their past time in the following ways:

1. By change in the vowel letter ; as, ride, rode ; sing, sang ; come, came

2. By dropping final vowel; as, bite, bit ; hide, hid.

3. By changing final letter or letters ; as, send, sent ; lose, lost.

4. By dropping vowel from middle ; as, lead, led ; feed, fed.

5. By changing the vowel and final letters ; as, bring, brought.

6. By changing the vowel sound and adding *t* or *d ;* as, feel, felt ; deal, dealt ; flee, fled. *Do* changes the vowel letter and adds *d.*

163. Other Irregular Forms.—*Be,* as we have already noticed, is irregular, having *was* and *were* for its past forms.

(*a*) *Go* takes a different word for its past time,—*went.*

(*b*) Five verbs, **shall, will, can, may,** and **must,** are frequently used in forming verb-phrases. The first four of them have irregular past forms, as follow: **should, would, could,** and **might.**

Must has no past time form, though it is sometimes used in verb-phrases expressing past time.

Shall and *will* express future time.

Should and *would* are used in phrases denoting present as well as past time.

(*c*) About twenty-five verbs have the same form for past that they have for present time. Examples: Beat, put, spread. [See 329, *Note 1.*]

(*d*) Some verbs have both regular and irregular forms to denote past time; as, dream, dreamt or dreamed; sweep, swept or sweeped. [329, *Note 2.*]

(*e*) Two verbs, *beware* and *begone,* have no past forms, while *quoth* (now obsolete except in poetry) is used only in the past time. (330.)

Turn to the list of irregular verbs (329) and go over it carefully, telling in which of the above-mentioned ways each verb forms its past time. [Correct the errors in paragraph 258.]

LESSON 24.

VERB-FORMS.—Concluded.

In the last two lessons, we have learned about the number-forms, the time-forms, and the first-person form of verbs,—the first-person form being the same as the plural forms of all verbs except *be,* which has *am* for the pronoun *I.*

164. Verbals.—There are no other real verb-forms, but there are two other changes made in the form of a verb when it ceases to *assert* and becomes, in part, another part-of-speech.

Catching trout is fine sport.
I always enjoy catching trout.
We were engaged in catching trout.

In each of these sentences the word 'catching' (from the verb 'catch') is used as a *noun:* In the first, as the *subject;* in the second, as the *object* of the verb 'enjoy;' in the third, as the *object* of the preposition 'in.' But there is one way in which this word 'catching' differs from the ordinary noun. It has an object,—'trout.' Now, as a noun never takes an object, it is plain that *catching* must be partly a verb and partly a noun. And such, in fact, is the case. It is a *verbal-noun*,—a verb used as a noun but keeping (in part at least) its verb nature. (365.)

(*a*) It was a land flowing with milk and honey.

In this sentence, the word 'flowing' (from the verb 'flow') qualifies the noun 'land,' thus doing the work of an adjective. At the same time, *flowing* takes the usual adverb modifier of a verb, the phrase 'with milk and honey,' answering *how?* Therefore *flowing* is a *verbal-adjective.*

(*b*) He came dashing through the crowd as fast as he could run.

In this sentence, *dashing* (from 'dash') is an adverb, telling *how* 'he came.' At the same time, it takes the modifier of a verb, the adverbial phrase, 'through the crowd,'—answering *where?* and the adverbial clause, 'as fast as he could run,'—answering *how?* Hence, it is a *verbal-adverb.*

165. Participles.—These VERBALS (verbal-nouns, verbal-adjectives, and verbal-adverbs) partake of the nature of two parts of speech at the same time. Hence, they are called PARTICIPLES. (*Participle* means 'a partaker.')

166. A verb has two participles; one called "imperfect" (or *active*), the other, "perfect" (or *passive.*)

(*a*) The *imperfect participle* always ends in *ing*. It expresses action, existence, or possession, as going on, or continuing (that is, action, etc., not *perfect*—'complete') at the time mentioned in the sentence. This participle has been fully illustrated in the sentences given above. (164.)

Remarks.—Because it represents action, etc., as continuing at the time mentioned in the sentence, the imperfect participle is also called the 'present,' or *active* participle, and we shall hereafter refer to it by the latter name.

The active participles that may have objects are those derived from transitive verbs. (99.) Examples: *Catching, lifting, bringing.*

(*b*) The *perfect participle* always expresses action, etc., as *perfected* ('completed') at the time mentioned in the sentence. It is formed by adding *d* or *ed* to regular verbs.

Examples: *Waved*, from 'wave;' *defeated*, from 'defeat;' *beaten*, from 'beat.'

(*c*) The perfect participle is never used as a verbal-noun, and but rarely as a verbal-adverb; but it is freely used as a verbal-adjective; thus—

The enemy, *defeated* at every point, retreated in haste.
The flag, *waved* by the gentle breeze, seemed exultant.

(*d*) This participle (the 'perfect') is always the last word in passive verb-phrases (101); hence, it is also called the *passive* participle. And because it always denotes an action, etc., as past (completed), it is sometimes called the *past* participle.

167. What are known as "compound participles" are formed by placing *having* before a perfect participle, or by placing *having been* before either an active or a passive participle; as—

Having watched; having been watching; having been watched.

Remark.—As these are really *phrases* and not verb-forms, they do not come under the present head, and will be treated in another place. (195.)

168. Briefly stated, the forms and form-changes of verbs are as follow:

1. **Number Form.**—Singular form made by adding *s* or *es* to the plural (root) form. [Changing final *y*, preceded by a consonant, into *i*.]

2. **Person Form.**—Using plural form of verb with pronoun *I*, excepting in the case of *be* which takes *am* for the first person, singular.

3. **Time Form.**—Past time form made—

1. By adding *d* or *ed* to the root of regular verbs.
2. By variety of changes in root-form of irregular verbs.

4. **Participle Forms.**—Root-form changed—

1. By adding *ing* to make the active participle.
2. By adding *d* or *ed* (regular); also irregular changes to form the perfect participle.

Remark.—Owing to the variety of ways in which the perfect participles of irregular verbs are formed, it is better to become familiar with them by memorizing from the list than to attempt learning rules for their formation. (329.)

169. Archaic Forms.—In Old English there were two other verb-forms:

1. A second person-form ending in *st* or *est** and used only with the old second person (singular) *thou;* thus—

Thou lovest, thou walkest; past, lovedst, walkedst.

2. A third person (singular) form ending in *th* or *eth;* thus—

He loveth, he walketh; (no corresponding past form).

These forms are called *archaic* ('old style'). They abound in the Scriptures, and in poetry. They are still used more or less in poetry and in solemn forms of address; but they are practically obsolete so far as every-day speech is concerned. [See Twenty-third Psalm, page 98.]

170. How to distinguish Participles from Nouns and Adjectives.—Nouns ending in *ing* should not be confounded with active participles used as nouns. The latter are *verbals* and take the modifiers of verbs; the former being pure nouns never take the modifiers of a verb. (64^4, *Note.*) Neither should the adjectives derived from verbs (68^2) be confused with the participles. The former immediately precede the noun described; the latter generally follow the noun or pronoun.

Sometimes, however, a participle without modifiers is placed just before the word it limits. In such cases, it may be distinguished from pure descriptive adjectives by the following test:

*Excepting **has** and **was,** which add only *t*, and **shall, will, are,** and **were,** which change the final letter to *t;* thus, Thou *hast*, thou *shalt*, thou *wert*. [See 258^9 and 377.]

Read the two words together without a pause between them. If the idea thus conveyed by it is precisely the meaning intended, the word is an *adjective*. But if the description is not what is intended, the word is a *participle*.

Example: "Listening, we caught the sound of clattering hoofs."

Here, plainly, it is not intended to say 'listening we;' but just as plainly the writer does mean to call the hoofs 'clattering hoofs.' Therefore, *clattering* is a descriptive adjective, but *listening* is a participle. (365 *b*.)

Remark.—The participle used as an adjective is sometimes called a "participial adjective." All participles used to complete the verb-phrase after copulas are participial adjectives, since they are a part of the verb-phrase assertion and at the same time are descriptive of the subject; thus—

They are *hurrying*. He was *standing*. It is *painted*. I am *surprised*.

171. Tell which of the words in the following sentences are pure adjectives or nouns, and which are participles; also tell how the participles are used:

1. Singing strengthens the voice. 2. Worrying will not help matters. 3. Catching trout requires skill. 4. Running will not hurt him. 5. The kettle needs scouring. 6. Hunting deer is exciting sport. 7. Rowing a boat is good exercise. 8. They thought he needed close watching. 9. Counterfeiting is punished by the government. 10. Hearing is believing, seeing is knowing. 11. The hunter saw the bear approaching. 12. Looking out of the window, we saw them coming. 13. The moon shining brightly, lighted our pathway. 14. The stars, twinkling in the sky, had the appearance of large diamonds. 15. The hounds, heated by the chase, ran into the water, leaping over each other in their haste. 16. The general, seated on his horse, watched the enemy.

Remarks.—Notice that participles never assert the action, existence, or possession. They only mention these things as taking place or as having taken place.

Besides their use as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, participles have other constructions which will be considered farther on. (Lesson 32.)

172. Parse the participles in the following fable,* by telling how they are used,—whether as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs; whether they are active or perfect; and whether they are derived from transitive or intransitive verbs: (101.)

A rich gouty man *troubled* with disease in his feet, went to a physician *distinguished* for his skill, *promising* to do exactly what the physician ordered,

*From Dr. Abbott's "How to Parse." The fables on pages 5 and 37 were adapted from the same author's "How to tell the Parts of Speech."

if only he would cure him. *Seeing* his patient *deprived* of the use of his feet, and too lazy to use them, the physician took him up into a room *containing* no chair, couch, or seat of any kind, and *having* a floor *lined* with iron. There he left him and went out, *locking* the door behind him. Presently the rich man found his feet *growing* unpleasantly hot. *Irritated* at this he called out, but no one answered. *Hobbling* to the door on his crutches, he found it *locked*. By this time his feet, *heated* by the hot iron floor, pained him so much that he began to raise them, *lifting* first one, then the other, at first slowly, then more and more quickly. In this way, *forced* to use his legs, he found the use of them grow more and more easy, and was *cured* against his will.

LESSON 25.

FUTURE TIME VERB-PHRASES.

173. We have seen (161) that past time may be indicated by a change in the form of a verb; but we very often make a statement in such a way as to show that we do not mean either *present* time, or *past* time. Thus, I may say—

'I shall write to him about it, and you will hear from him soon,'

by which you understand that I have not already written to him, that I am not now writing to him, but that I intend to write to him in the *future*. In the second part of the sentence, *will hear* expresses the same idea of future time.

(*a*) Notice that the future time is not indicated by a change in the form of the verbs *write* and *hear*, but by placing *shall* and *will* before them. Therefore we may say that **future time is shown by verb-phrases made by placing shall and will before the root form of the verb.**

(*b*) If we change the positions of *shall* and *will* in the sentence given above, and say—

'I *will* write to him about it, and you *shall* hear from him soon,'

will in the first person and *shall* in the second denote future time, and also indicate a *promise* on the part of the speaker. So, in the sentence—

We *will* go and see him; he *shall* know about it,

will in the *first* person and *shall* in the *third* indicate not only future time, but also a *determination* on our part.

174. Now, let us arrange the future time in all the persons, both singular and plural.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I shall [*will*] write.	We shall [*will*] write.
You will [*shall*] write.	You will [*shall*] write.
He will [*shall*] write.	They will [*shall*] write.

175. By placing the copula *be* after *shall* and *will*, an adjective may be used to complete the predicate; as, 'I shall be anxious.' Complete the predicates in the above outline, using the adjectives 'anxious,' 'happy,' 'sorry,' 'glad,' 'sick.' Notice the difference in the meaning of *shall* and *will* in the first person, and *will* and *shall* in the second and third persons. [See 366.]

176. The following table shows how the verb 'see' should be used with the different persons and numbers to indicate the three divisions of time,—present, past, and future.

Present Time.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
(*Active.*)	(*Passive.*)	(*Active.*)	(*Passive.*)
1. I see	[am seen.]	We see	[are seen.]
2. You see	[are seen.]	You see	[are seen.]
3. He sees	[is seen.]	They see	[are seen.]

Past Time.

1. I saw	[was seen.]	We saw	[were seen.]
2. You saw	[were seen.]	You saw	[were seen.]
3. He saw	[was seen.]	They saw	[were seen.]

Future Time.

1. I shall [*will*] see [be seen.]	We shall [*will*] see [be seen.]
2. You will [*shall*] see [be seen.]	You will [*shall*] see [be seen.]
3. He will [*shall*] see [be seen.]	They will [*shall*] see [be seen.]

177. Conjugation.—Giving all the forms of a verb, or its phrases, in the different persons, numbers, and times, like the above, is called CONJUGATION.

[From *con-* 'together;' *jugare*, 'to join.']

The forms given in the left-hand column of both singular and plural, are called "active" because they represent the subject as acting, thus, 'I see,' 'They see,' etc. (100.)

The phrases enclosed in the brackets are called "passive" because they show that the subject receives the action expressed. These are passive verb-phrases, and you will notice that they are made by putting the copulas *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, before the passive participle, *seen*. (166 *d*.)

In the *active* conjugation, only the present (*see-s*) and the past (*saw*) forms of the verb are used. In the *passive*, only the perfect participle (*seen*) is used; and this is true of every verb. Therefore, all we need to know about a verb, in order to conjugate it, is the *present*, *past*, and *perfect participle* forms. For this reason, these forms are called the **principal parts** of a verb.

178. Conjugate the following verbs, using the *active* form:

Lay (transitive)—'to place or put;' as, to lay a book on the table.

Principal parts: Present, *lay;* past, *laid;* perfect participle, *laid.*
In conjugating *lay*, use "the book" for the object.*

Lie (intransitive)—'to recline;' as, to lie on the grass.

Principal parts: Present, *lie;* past, *lay;* perfect participle, *lain.*
In conjugating *lie*, complete the sentence each time by putting the phrase "on the grass" after the verb; thus, 'I lie on the grass.'

Set (transitive)—'to place or put;' as, to set a table.

Principal parts: Present, *set;* past, *set;* perfect participle, *set.*
In conjugating *set*, use "the table" for the object.

Sit (intransitive)—'to sit in a chair.'

Principal parts: Present, *sit;* past, *sat;* perfect participle, *sat.*
In conjugating, complete the sentence by the phrase "on the lounge."

Do (transitive)—'to perform;' as, to do the work.

Principal parts: Present, *do;* past, *did*; perfect participle, *done.*
In conjugating, use "the work" for the object.

Have (transitive)—'to possess;' as, to have respect.

Principal parts: Present, *have;* past, *had;* perfect participle, *had.*
In conjugating, use "friends" for the object.

---

*__To the Teacher.__—The conjugation of such verbs as those given in paragraph 178 may be made both interesting and practical by using objects after the transitive, and phrases after the intransitive verbs. Indeed, the use of both objects and adverbial phrases after the transitive verbs is recommended and strongly urged. Thus, for example, 'He lays the book on the table,' 'You laid the book on the table,' 'I shall lay the book on the table.' Students can thus be led to see that conjugation is not a mere rigmarole of forms, but a practical exercise in sentence-making,—the very sentence, too, in which they are likely to make errors.

Always repeat the conjugation in the *future* time, using *will* and *shall*, as shown in the brackets, and taking notice of the promise or determination expressed. Drill your students in the conjugation of such troublesome words as *lay* and *lie*, *sit* and *set*, until the correct form of expression becomes habitual. This work is continued in the next lesson.

179. Correct the following errors, giving reasons for the corrections:

1. You done it yourself. 2. It was did in a hurry. 3. He lay the book down and set on it. 4. They sat the clock. 5. Sit the bucket on the bench and let it set there. 6. I know he done it for I seen him. 7. They are laying idle. 8. They was setting on the fence when we seen them. 9. They done nothing but sit bad examples. 10. Lie it on the shelf. 11. He laid in the shade and watched the men sitting fence-posts. [For further practice, see paragraph 254.]

LESSON 26.

PERFECT TIME VERB-PHRASES.

180. Present Perfect Time.—By putting **have** (singular *has*) before the perfect participle of a verb, we form a verb-phrase denoting time completed but connected in sense with the present time; thus—

SINGULAR.—I have seen, You have seen, He has seen.
PLURAL.—We have seen, You have seen, They have seen.

This is known as the "present complete" or "present perfect" time. (*Perfect* means 'complete.')

Conjugate the verbs *see*, *lay*, *lie*, *sit*, *set*, and *do*, in the present perfect time, using the following objects after the transitives:

See [the man]; *lay* [the book]; *set* [the table]; *do* [the work.]
[For principal parts of these verbs, see paragraph 178; also, 329.]

181. Past Perfect Time.—By placing **had** (past of *have*) before the perfect participle of a verb, we form a verb-phrase expressing a time *before* some other past time; that is, it will denote an action that was perfect ('completed') at a certain time in the past; as—

I had seen him there before. They had finished the work before we arrived.

This is called the "past complete" or "past perfect" time.

Conjugate *see*, *lay*, *lie*, *sit*, *set*, and *do*, in the past perfect time, placing the objects in brackets above after the transitive verbs.

182. Future Perfect Time.—By putting *have* after *shall* and *will* in the future time (174), between those words and the perfect participle of a verb, we may form verb-phrases indicating a time *before* some other future time, or an action that will be perfected ('completed') before some other future act; thus—

I shall have seen him when you arrive.
You will have earned your money long before you get it.
He will have finished the work by that time.

This is called the "future complete" or "future perfect" time.

Conjugate *see*, *lay*, *lie*, *sit*, *set*, and *do*, in the future perfect time, with objects after the transitives.

183. From the foregoing, we find that the following perfect, or completed times may be expressed by the use of *have* and *had:*

PRESENT PERFECT.	I have You have He has (They have)	seen, laid, lain, set, sat, done.
PAST PERFECT.	I had You had He had	
FUTURE PERFECT.	I shall have You will have He will have	

Note.—In conjugating the plural number only one change is made from this outline. In the third person (present), *has* is changed to *have*.

Conjugate the following words, carrying them through the present, past, and future, and the present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect divisions of time: [For principal parts, see 329.]

Fall [on the ice]; *come* [to school]; *go* [to the city]; *sit* [for a picture].

184. Passive Verb-Phrases.—To form the passive conjugation of the perfect times, use the passive participle *been* after *have* and *had*. Conjugate *see* passively in the perfect times according to the above outline.

Note.—The passive conjugation of *see* in the present, past, and future times, was given in our last lesson, paragraph 176.

185. Conjugate *see*, *lay*, *set*, and *do* passively, in the six divisions of time, by turning the object of the active verb into the subject of a passive verb-phrase, using the objects given in paragraph 180; thus—

PRESENT TIME. The man is seen by me—by *you*, *her*, *him*, *us*, *them*.
PAST TIME. The man was seen by me—etc.
FUTURE TIME. The man will [shall] be seen by me—etc.
PRESENT PERFECT TIME. The man has been seen by me—etc.
PAST PERFECT TIME. The man had been seen by me—etc.
FUTURE PERFECT TIME. The man will [shall] have been seen by me—etc.

186. Conjugate the following verbs in the six divisions of time: [For principal parts, see list of irregular verbs, paragraph 329.]

Begin [the work]; *sing* [a song]; *eat* [the cake]; *drink* [lemonade]; *drive* [the horse]; *ring* [the bell]; *throw* [the ball.]

First conjugate actively, using the objects enclosed by the brackets; then conjugate passively, by using those objects for the subjects of passive sentences, as shown above, 185.

187. By using the active participle of the verb we are conjugating, after the copulas *be* or *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, and *been*, we may form what are known as "progressive" verb-phrases in each of the six divisions of time; thus—

I am building. I was building. I shall be building.
I have been building. I had been building. I shall have been building.

Remark.—These progressive verb-phrases do not properly have a passive form. (386.)

188. When subordinate clauses beginning with *if*, *though*, or *unless*, are joined to sentences containing *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, the past form of a verb is used to express present time with either singular or plural subjects · thus—

If he were here, he could tell us.
Unless I were sure of it, I should not wait.
Though he were to slay me, yet would I trust him.
What should you do if you were in my place?
If they were present, they might answer for themselves.
If I were in your place, I should do just as you are doing.

If is sometimes omitted; thus—

Were we sure of it, we should go at once.
Were the facts better known, the people would demand a change.
Were he here, what he would do might be far from what he should do.

(*a*) *Were* is used in the present time in expressing a wish; as—

I wish he were here. I wish I were well again.

(*b*) *Were* is used in the present time after *as if*, or *as though*, introducing an adverbial clause of manner; thus—

He talks as if he were well informed.
You speak as if I were your slave.
They act as though they were confident of success.

189. In subordinate clauses, connected by *if*, *unless*, etc., to principal clauses expressing future time, the present form of the verb is used with a future sense. (369.)

Examples: If they are there, I will tell them.
Unless he comes, I shall not go.
If it rains, the picnic will be postponed.
If he has it with him tomorrow, ask him for it.

LESSON 27.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLE-PHRASES.

190. Infinitives.—The use of the active and perfect participles of verbs as verbal-nouns, verbal-adjectives, and verbal-adverbs, has already been explained. (164.) There is another way in which a verb may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. This is done by speaking of the *action*, *existence*, or *possession*, represented by the root-form of the verb, without asserting it. In doing this, we generally put the word "to" before the verb; as, *to do*, *to be*, *to have*. Thus—

To do our duty is right. *To be* or not *to be* is the question. *To have* and *to hold*, *to love* and *to cherish*, were the happy words.

Since this way of using the verb does not represent the doing, being, or possessing, as belonging to any particular person, or show whether one person or more than one is concerned in the action, etc., it is called the INFINITIVE use. *Infinitive* means 'unlimited,' that is, without limit as to person and number.

Almost every verb in our language may be used in this infinitive way; and because the *to* is generally (not always) used before it, this little word is sometimes called the "sign" of the infinitive. (370.)

191. The following examples show the use of the infinitive, with the construction ('used in the manner') of a noun:

1. *To decide* was not easy. [Used as subject.]
2. He likes *to work*. [Used as object of verb.]
3. His desire is *to know* more. [Used as predicate noun.]
4. They were about *to start* a factory. [Object of preposition; 370 *a*.]
5. He came intending *to speak* first. [Object of participle.]

(*a*) The infinitive may be used as an adjective; thus—

1. They have money *to spend*. (i. e., 'spending' money.)
2. He has no time *to spare*. (i. e., 'spare' time.)
3. I have a duty *to perform*. (i. e., 'a duty that I must perform.')

(*b*) The infinitive may be used as an adverb; thus—

1. They came *to disturb* us. [Modifying verb.]
2. It was beautiful *to behold*. [Modifying adjective.]
3. It is good enough *to eat*. [Modifying adverb 'enough.']

Remark.—Notice that the infinitive, like the participle, is a *verbal*. It does not assert; and when it is used as a noun, adjective, or adverb, it may take an object or adverb modifier the same as a pure verb. Like the participle, the infinitive has still other uses which will be considered in a future lesson. (p. 93.)

192. *To*, the "sign" of the infinitive, is generally omitted in the following cases:

1. After *bid*, *help*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *make*, and *see*, and words of similar meaning, such as *view*, *behold*, *perceive*, *watch*, *observe*, etc., especially when these verbs are followed by an object to which the infinitive is added as a complement (222); also after *have* in similar constructions.

Examples: We heard him speak last night. They helped us sing. Bid them come at once. Let them go with us. I would have you remember it. They had us try it once. He had them practice constantly.

2. After *need* and *dare*, when they are followed by *not*, or when they are used to begin interrogative sentences; as, 'Need I come again?' 'You need not come again.' 'Dare they do it?' 'They dare not do it.'

3. After *do*, used in the sense of "perform;" as, 'I do work.' (205.)

Remark.—When one of these words is used in a passive phrase, the infinitive following has the *to;* as—

He was heard to say it. They were dared to come.

4. After the comparatives *as* and *than*, following *rather*, *better*, *as well*, or *as lief;* thus—

I might as well tell him as not. I would as lief not be, as live to be—etc. He would rather die than give up his principles; and so he might better die than give them up.

5. When two or more verbs used infinitively are connected by a co-ordinate conjunction, the *to* may be used with the first and omitted before the others; thus—

He promised to love, honor, and obey.

193. Tell how the infinitives are used in the following:

1. To see the sun is pleasant. 2. To live is not all of life. 3. I love to hear the birds. 4. He tries to do his duty. 5. Her aim was to do right. 6. To part is hard when friends are dear. 7. To comfort the sorrowing is Christ-like. 8. We had no water to drink. 9. He has money to loan. 10. They had no fire to warm them. 11. The child has no one to care for it. 12. I hope to return soon. 13. They were about to starve. 14. The ambition of most men is to become rich. 15. And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.

Point out four infinitives in the fable in paragraph 172, telling how each is used and how the infinitive itself is modified.

194. Infinitive-Phrases.—By placing the infinitive of *be* before the active participles of other verbs, and the infinitive of *have* before perfect participles, we may form infinitive phrases similar in form and nature to the compound participles (167); thus—

To be giving is more blessed than to be receiving.
To have said nothing would have been better.

And such phrases have, like the participle phrases (184-195), passive and progressive, as well as active forms; thus—

To have been given a choice would have pleased him.
To have been giving assistance all the time would have gratified us.

(*a*) The copulative infinitive, *to be*, is sometimes followed by an adjective, and even by an adverb; thus—

To be good is *to be happy*. She would like *to be here*.

In such cases, the adjective or adverb may be said to be used infinitively, that is, in an unlimited or indefinite way.

195. Participle-Phrases.—We saw in our conjugation of verbs that the perfect ('passive') participles of verbs may be used in forming verb-phrases, both active and passive, the active phrases being confined to the completed times. (180-1-2.) We have seen also (187) that the active participles are used to form active, progressive phrases.

(*a*) Participles and participle-phrases are also both *active* and *passive* in sense and use. The active participle-phrase is formed by placing *having* before the past participle, or (for the progressive phrase) *having been* before the active participle; thus—

Having watched for hours, she was tired. (365 *b*.)
Having been watching for days, he was nearly sick.

(*b*) The passive participle-phrase is formed by placing *being* or *having been* before the passive participle; thus—

Being watched, he did not attempt it again. (214.)
Having been watched, he had not attempted it again.

196. The participle-phrases are used as nouns, the same as the present participle and the infinitives; thus in—

His *being watched* prevented his attempting it,

the phrase 'being watched' is used as a noun, subject of the sentence, limited by *his*; and in—

He dislikes *being watched*,

the phrase 'being watched' is used as a noun, the object of the verb *dislikes*; while in—

He objects to *being watched*,

it is the object of the preposition *to*.

Parse the infinitives and participles in the story of "Judge Grammar's Court," page 51, by telling how each one is used and how it is modified.

LESSON 28.

AUXILIARY VERBS.*

197. We have found that when a verb is used by itself in making an assertion, it denotes either *present* or *past* time. (161.) We have found also that when we wish to denote any other time than the past or present, we do so by making use of the words *shall*, *will*, and *have* (past *had*), placing them before the principal verb. Verbs that are used in this way to help form verb-phrases for the purpose of denoting time or expressing some condition of the assertion, are called AUXILIARY or *helping* verbs. (*Auxiliary* means 'helping.')

198. The pure auxiliary verbs are *shall*, *will*, *can*, *may*, *must*, and *be*. The first four of these have past forms—*should*, *would*, *could*, and *might*.

(*a*) **Be** is the base or root of the pure copulas, and has for its present forms *am*, *is*, *are*; past *was*, *were*; perfect participle *been*.

Be means 'exists,' and the word or phrase that follows any of its forms to complete the predicate, qualifies, limits, or explains the subject.

(*b*) Three other words, **ought, do,** and **have,** are usually classed with the auxiliaries, though they are, in reality, principal verbs. (371.)

Ought means 'owe;' *do* means 'perform;' *have* means 'possess.'

USES AND MEANINGS OF THE AUXILIARIES.

199. Shall, Will.—Besides denoting future time, these two words may, as we have already seen (173 *b*), be so used as to express a *promise* or *determination* on the part of the speaker.

(*a*) **In asking a question, use the auxiliary that should be used in the answer.** This rule applies to other auxiliaries as well as to *shall* and *will*.

---

*__To the Teacher.__—This lesson and the remaining five of Part I may be omitted by beginners and classes whose members are aiming at only the "practical" in their study of language. The subjects discussed in these lessons are mostly technical; besides, all the salient points are touched upon in Part II, from which reference is made to them from time to time. It might be well, however, to spend some time on the exercises for analysis in lesson 33, before passing to Part II. These points each teacher must decide for himself, being governed by the circumstances and the needs of his class.

Examples: 'Shall you see him again?' Answer: 'I think I shall.' 'Will you help me tomorrow?' Answer: 'I will.'

(*b*) *Will* should not be used with the first person in asking questions as to what the speaker is to do; thus, 'Will I tell him?' should be 'Shall I tell him?'

(*c*) *Will* is used to report the will, or determination, of the third person; as, "He *will* have his own way about it in spite of everything."

200. Should, Would.—These two words are derived from *shall* and *will*, of which they are the past forms. They are, however, much used in a present or future sense to express action or existence depending upon some condition; as—

I should go if I were able. He would come if you should invite him.

(*a*) In general, the difference between *should* and *would* is much the same as that between *shall* and *will*. *Would* implies an exercise of the will; *should* a dependent action or an obligation. In expressing a conditional action or obligation, *should* may be used with either of the persons.

Remark.—In the latter sense, *should* means the same as *ought*, though not so strong a word; as, "He should (ought to) go."

Would is sometimes used in the past to denote a habit or custom; as, "He would walk the floor for hours at a time."

Would is also used in the present to express *willingness* conditioned upon the ability to do; as, "He would if he could."

In asking questions, use *would* or *should* according to 199 *a*, and *b*.

In reporting what others have said we should use the auxiliaries they used.

Examples: 'He says he shall be glad to see you;' or, 'He said he should be glad to see you.' 'The man says he *will* not pay the bill;' or, 'The man said he *would* not pay the bill.'

[For further discussion of *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*, see 366.]

201. May, Might.—*May* indicates present *permission* in regard to an action or possession; as—

You may go. He may have it.

(*a*) *May* also implies a *possible* present possession or future action; thus—

"He *may* come" may mean either 'He is at liberty to come,' or, 'It is possible that he may (will) yet come.'

And so, "He *may* have it," may mean either 'He is granted permission to have it,' or, 'It is possible that he (now) has it.'

(*b*) *May* also expresses a possible present existence or the possibility of a present perfect action or past existence; as, "He *may* be sick." "He *may* have gone by this time." "He *may* have been sick." That is, 'It is possible that he *is* sick,' '*has* gone,' '*was* sick.'

(*c*) *Might*, the past of *may*, is used to express past permission or power *to do* or *be*, or the possibility of *doing*, *being*, or *having*; as, "He said you *might* go;" that is, 'He gave you permission to go.' "You *might* have helped us;" that is, 'You *could* (or 'had the power to') have helped us.'

(*d*) *Might* is also used in a conditional sense to express either permission or power to do, or the possibility of doing, in the present or future; as, "You *might* stay if the weather were not so bad." "He *might* decide in our favor if they would let him alone." "They *might* help us if they would."

202. Can, Could.—As *may* implies permission, so *can* and its past, *could*, imply *ability* or *power*.

(*a*) *Can* is used only in the present time. *Could* is used in past and past perfect verb-phrases. In the past perfect it is used in a conditional sense; as—

He *could* have helped us if he had been here.

(*b*) *Could* is also used in a present sense to denote ability conditioned upon a willingness to do; as, 'He *could* if he would.'

203. Must, Ought.—These two words imply *obligation*.

Must bears the idea of an obligation (a 'being obliged') from necessity or other compulsion. Though it has no past form, *must* is used as an auxiliary to present perfect verb-phrases; as—

"You must have known it," meaning, 'It must be that you knew it,' or, 'It certainly is true that you knew it.'

(*a*) *Ought* originally meant *owe*, of which word it was the past form. Hence, *ought* means 'owe;' 'to be indebted to;' 'to be under obligation to.' It conveys the idea of a moral obligation, or, as we may say, an obligation 'from the very nature of things.'

Remark.—*Should*, in one of its senses, is a synonym for *ought*, though 'ought' denotes the stronger obligation. [See 200 *a*, Remark.]

Examples: We should help one another. You ought to help him.

(*b*) Though classed with the auxiliary verbs, *ought* is, as mentioned above (198 *b*), really a principal verb, always followed by the root infinite of some other verb. (371.) It is used in both present and past senses; thus—

"They ought to notify us;" that is, 'They owe it to us to give us notice.' "They ought to have notified us;" that is, 'They owed it to us to give us notice.'

204. Without including *shall* and *will* (used to denote future time, and, when necessary, to express a promise or determination on the part of the speaker), and *have* (used to express possession, and also to denote completed time), we have the following meanings, or ideas, expressed by the auxiliaries:

POTENTIAL. ('power') *can, could, might.*
LIBERTY. ('permission') *may* and *might.*
POSSIBILITY. *May* and *might.*
OBLIGATION. *Must, ought,* and *should.*
NECESSITY. *Must.*
CONDITIONAL. *Would* or any other auxiliary followed by *if* or *unless* introducing a condition.

(*a*) When verb-phrases are introduced by the auxiliaries may, can, might, could, expressing the idea of *power, permission,* or *possibility,* the manner ("mode") of assertion is called the "potential."

(*b*) When the auxiliaries *must* and *ought,* and *should* in one of its senses, are used, the manner of assertion is "obligative," expressing obligation or necessity.

(*c*) When the auxiliaries are used in a conditional sense, the manner of making the statement is said to be "conditional" or "dependent."

205. Emphatic Verb-Phrases.—The use of *do* (past *did*) as an auxiliary is to form what are called emphatic verb-phrases in the present and past times; as, "I do write letters." "I did write the letters."

Remark.—But *do* in these sentences is really a principal verb, followed by the infinitive of another verb as its object (192[3] and 371). Thus—

"I did write the letters" means 'I performed the act of writing the letters.'

LESSON 29.

INDEPENDENT, INTRODUCTORY, AND EXPLANATORY WORDS.

In previous lessons on analysis, we have studied the elements of which simple, compound, and complex sentences are composed. We have now to notice certain words and expressions that are used in sentences, or along with them, to aid us in the expression of thoughts.

206. Independent Words.—Aside from interjections and interjectional phrases, and the responsives, *yes* and *no*, there is another way in which words are used independently, that is, without depending upon the sentence with which they are used, or rather, without having the sentence depend upon them.

(*a*) A word may be independent by direct address; as—

Gentlemen,—Your order of yesterday has been filled.
Mr. President,—I move that a committee be appointed, etc.

(*b*) The most common use of words independent by direct address occurs with imperative sentences (57); as—

Children, [you] obey your parents. Charles, [you] shut the door.

(*c*) A 'modal' word or phrase (104 *f*, Remark) is often made independent by being used parenthetically; thus—

We will not, however, concede that much.

Note.—In analysis, the independent words are not considered as elements of the sentence with which they are used. If mentioned at all it is sufficient to say that they are independent words, and to tell whether they are independent by exclamation (interjectional), by direct address, or by parenthetical use.

207. Introductory Words.—Under this head may be classed—

(*a*) *So*, *well*, *why*, and *that*, used to introduce sentences. (108 *b*.)

Remark.—The introductory *that* is often omitted; as, "I told him [that] you wished to see him." "Had you heard [that] they were coming?"

(*b*) The indefinites *it* and *there* used as subjects. (108 *a*, 212 *a*.)

(*c*) Conjunctions used to begin sentences and connect them in thought with what goes before. (116.)

(*d*) Modal adverbs (104 *f*), such as *indeed*, *surely*, *certainly*, *however*, when used to introduce sentences. [See Rule 1 for the comma, 302, *Note 1*.]

Remark.—When these 'modal' words, and phrases of a similar nature, are used parenthetically, they may be regarded as *independent*. (206 c.) [See 302, *Note 3*.]

In analysis, words in class (*a*) are not to be considered as elements, they are merely introductory; those in (*b*) are indefinite subjects. The introductory conjunctions (*c*) should be parsed as such while the other words under (*d*) are to be considered as introductory (or 'modal') adverbs modifying the entire sentence rather than any particular word in it.

208. Explanatory Words.—It frequently occurs that a noun or pronoun is added to another noun or pronoun by way of explanation; thus—

His brother William is attending college.
We, the undersigned, subscribe as follows.

The noun 'William' is added to *brother* to explain or show which brother is meant; and 'the undersigned' is used to explain who *we* means.

And so in—

Milton, the poet, was blind when he wrote his greatest poem, Paradise Lost,

'the poet' is added to explain who Milton was, and 'Paradise Lost' is added to 'poem' to show which poem is meant. Words added to other words in this way are called "explanatory modifiers," or (more commonly) they are said to be "in apposition" with the noun they explain. (*Apposition* means 'in position near,' or 'by the side of.')

209. Pronouns are placed in apposition with either nouns or pronouns. When they are so used, they should have the subject or object form according as the noun or pronoun which they explain is a subject or an object. (237.)

The most frequent appositional use of pronouns is that of compound pronouns used by way of repetition for the purpose of emphasis; thus—

Charles *himself* sees the mistake. I *myself* saw it. She did it *herself*.

Note.—The 'explanatory modifier' (word in apposition) may itself be modified or limited by a word, a phrase, or a clause.

210. Sentences containing explanatory modifiers, to be analyzed:

[For the punctuation of such sentences, see Rule 1 for comma, 302, *Note 4*.]

1. Paul, the Apostle of the Gentiles, was a man of genius. 2. Garfield, the soldier, became Garfield the President. 3. You Englishmen are more conservative than we Americans. 4. Fulton, the man who invented the steamboat, was born in Pennsylvania. 5. He was guilty of treason, a crime punishable with death. 6. We, the people of the United States, do hereby ordain and establish this constitution.

(*a*) Sometimes a second explanatory word is placed in apposition with the first one; thus—

'We, the undersigned, citizens of the State of Ohio, do humbly petition,' etc.; 'I, James Brown, Justice of the Peace in and for the town of Monroe,' etc.

211. On account of historic importance and long association, the noun in apposition in some cases comes to be regarded as a part of the name, and the two, together with the connecting word (usually *the*), may be parsed as one word (65^{7}); thus—

'William the Conqueror'; 'Alexander the Great'; 'Mary Queen of Scots.'

[For the appositional use of adjectives, see 372.]

212. A clause may be placed in apposition with a single word; thus—

The old *saying*, 'A penny saved is a penny earned,' is true.
His *motion*, that the whole subject should be laid on the table, was adopted.
Are you aware of the *fact* that such a law has been passed?

Remark.—In sentences like the last one the noun "fact" is usually omitted, so that the noun clause introduced by *that* seems to be the object of the passive verb-phrase; thus—

I was not aware that such a law had been passed.
I am informed that they are ready to proceed with the case.

(*a*) Under this head may also be placed the explanatory phrase or clause following the indefinite 'it' as the subject of a sentence. Thus in—

It is not all of life to live, *It* is human to err,

the *its* are explained by the infinitives 'to live' and 'to err,' which are the real subjects, the logical order of the elements being—

To live is not all of life. To err is human.

And so, in—

It is true that he was proved guilty of treason,

'it' is explained by the noun clause, 'that he was proved guilty.'

213. A word may stand in apposition with the statement made in a preceding clause; thus—

He has what is better, a cool *head* and a clear *conscience*.
The boy disregarded his parents' advice, a *fault* too common in these days.

Note.—Words enclosed by marks of parenthesis are explanatory and in analysis should be disposed of as such unless they constitute a whole clause, in which case the matter may be analyzed as a separate sentence.

[For the appositional use of infinitives, see 224.]

LESSON 30.

ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTIONS, ATTENDANT ELEMENTS, AND ADVERBIAL NOUNS.

214. In our last lesson we noticed the use of nouns as explanatory modifiers, being placed in apposition with (in position by) the noun modified. Sometimes—in fact, quite often—we place a noun or pronoun and its modifiers alongside a whole sentence, not as modifying any part of it, but to express an attendant thought or accompanying circumstance, thus—

It being a legal holiday, the banks were closed.
The time having expired, the property was sold.

Such expressions, or constructions, as, 'The time having expired,' and 'It being a legal holiday,' seem to be cut loose from the rest of the sentence, that is, they are not closely connected with it; hence, they are called ABSOLUTE constructions. (*Ab-* 'from;' *solut*, 'loosed.')

Note.—Such a use of a noun or pronoun is most common in connection with a participle or participle-phrase, though other words and phrases are sometimes used as their modifiers.

Since the thought expressed by it is so connected with the main thought of the sentence as really to be a part of it, the 'absolute' construction can hardly be said to be *independent*. And since they do not modify any particular part of the sentence, these absolute expressions are neither adjectival nor adverbial elements, though they are generally adverbial in sense, for we may say—[See sentences above.]

'The property was sold *when* (or *because*) the time had expired.'
'The banks were closed *because* it was a legal holiday.

215. The whole of the absolute expression may be called an *attendant element*. The principal word (a noun or pronoun, as *time* and *it* in the above sentences) may be regarded as the *base* of the attendant element, and the other words and phrases as modifiers of this 'base.'

Analyze the following sentences, pointing out in each case the base of the attendant element and giving its modifiers:

[See Rule 1, *Note 1*, for use of comma, paragraph 302.]

1. The sun having set, we returned home. 2. The moon having risen, we resumed our journey. 3. Supper over, we withdrew to the garden for a walk. 4. Torch in hand, our guide led us into the dark cave. 5. The debt having been paid, the mortgage was canceled. 6. The deed having been signed, the money was handed over. 7. Business being dull, they were obliged to close. 8. The bookkeeper being sick, the statements were not rendered. 9. We proceeded to

the top, they remaining below. 10. They hurried him off to jail, he protesting and declaring that he was innocent. 11. The hour having arrived, we will proceed to transact the business for which we came together. 12. Rain or shine, I'm going. 13. Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.

(*a*) Change the attendant elements in the sentences above into equivalent adverbial phrases or clauses answering some of the questions answered by adverbs (104.) Notice that some of the sentences are weakened by the change.

216. Under the head of "attendant elements" may be placed the construction known as "pleonasm." This consists in placing a noun before a sentence in which something is asked or asserted about the thing mentioned; thus—

> Your fathers, where are they?
> The wind-flower and the violet, they perished long ago.

The use of the infinitive as an attendant element is given in paragraph 226.

217. Adverbial Nouns.—Reference has been made to adverbial use of nouns. (109.) They are added to verbs and adjectives to denote a fixed or definite time at which a thing took place; and also to denote *measure*, or extent of *time* or *distance*, and measure of *value*, of *weight*, of *number*, of *age;* and sometimes to indicate *direction.*

Note.—Pronouns are sometimes (though rarely) used in the same way. When they are so used, they have the object form; hence these adverbial nouns and pronouns are sometimes called *adverbial objectives.* (373.)

Examples of sentences containing adverbial nouns:

1. That man is worth fifty thousand dollars. 2. Charles is twenty years old today. 3. We will fill your order tomorrow. 4. They will return next week. 5. He went west last summer for his health. 6. The ship sailed south four days. 7. Apples are worth four dollars per barrel. 8. The hog weighed four hundred pounds. 9. That horse is fifteen hands high. 10. He is worth you and me put together.

(*a*) Such contractions as aboard, afoot, a-hunting, a-fishing, etc., may be regarded and parsed as adverbial nouns. (373 *a.*)

LESSON 31.

OBJECTS OF INTRANSITIVE VERBS AND PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES, ETC.

218. Intransitive verbs are those which require no object to complete their meaning, and, in general they cannot take an object. But a few intransitive verbs do at times take objects of a peculiar kind, as follows:

(*a*) Objects that are like the verb or related to it in meaning; as—

They ran a *race*. He dreamed a *dream*. I have fought a good *fight*.
Such an object is called a "cognate" object. (374.)

(*b*) Objects that point back to the subject; as—

He walked *himself* weary. They talked *themselves* hoarse.
Such an object is called "reflexive." (*Reflexive*, 'bent back,' 375 *b*.)

219. In passive verb-phrases (101), the object (receiver) of the action is taken for the subject. But when a transitive verb having two objects (a *direct* and an *indirect*,—46) is changed into a passive phrase, and the indirect object is taken for the subject, the direct object retains its position as object of the predicate. Thus, we say—

'The clerk sold her the goods,' or—
'She was sold the goods by the clerk;'

'The druggist gave the man the wrong medicine,' or—
'The man was given the wrong medicine by the druggist;'

'The boy asked him that question,' or—
'He was asked that question by the boy.'

Transpose the other sentences in paragraph 47 in the same manner.

220. In our last lesson it was shown that two words may be used together to name or represent the same thing, one of the words being 'in apposition' to the other to explain or emphasize it. Predicate nouns and pronouns are used for much the same purpose, but the manner of use is quite different. In the latter case, the nouns and pronouns are united to the subject by some copula or copula-phrase; whereas, the nouns and pronouns 'in apposition' are added to or placed by the side of the other nouns or pronouns without any sign (word) of connection being used. In the former, the identity ('sameness') expressed by the subject and predicate words is asserted by the copula, while in the latter, the identity of the two names 'in apposition' is assumed, or taken for granted. This may be illustrated by the following examples:

Sam is a blacksmith, and he is a happy man.
Sam, the blacksmith, is a happy man.

221. Supplemented Object.—There is another way in which nouns are added to nouns and pronouns without any sign of connection between them; thus, in—

The President appointed him Minister to France,

Minister ('or Minister-to-France') is added to *him*, not to explain who *him* is (for it does not do that), but to show what he was appointed *to be*. But *to be*, the 'sign of connection,' is not given, and the word 'Minister'-[to-France] seems to be added to *him* as though it were a part of the object; and such it is, for the object would not be complete without it. The following examples will make this still more clear:

They made *her queen*. We elected *him chairman*.

In the first example, the pronoun *her* is not the complete object of *made*, for it is not true that they made *her*. The word 'queen' is added to *her* to supplement (or complete) the object, the entire object being *her* [*to be*] *queen;* and so in the second example, the completed or supplemented object is *him* [*to be*] *chairman*.

(*a*) Adjectives also are sometimes added to the object for the same purpose, especially to reflexive objects (218 *b*); thus—

Your letter made me [ ] happy. They sang themselves [ ] hoarse.
He thinks it [ ] wrong to go there. Do you think it [ ] wise to do so?

Nouns and adjectives added to the object in this way are called *supplements* of the object. (375.)

(*b*) Sometimes the sign of connection (*to be*) is used between the apparent direct object and its supplement. In such cases if the supplement is a pronoun, it must have the object form (375 *e*) as though it were a mere appositional word; as—

I knew it *to be him*. She supposed it *to be me*. He took them *to be us*.

But this construction must not be confused with—

I know *it was she;* Who told you *it was I? Its being he* makes no difference,

in which the object or subject is a noun clause, and the pronoun being in the predicate of the clause must have the subject form—*he*, *she*, *I*, etc.

LESSON 32.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE CONSTRUCTIONS.

The use of participles and infinitives as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, has already been pointed out (164 and 191). There are other uses of these "verbals," which, though not so well defined, may be classified and understood.*

222. Complement of Object.—The addition of an infinitive copula to the direct object of a verb has been suggested (221 *b*). In such cases the direct object seems to be a subject for the infinitive, but when the direct object is a pronoun it must have the object form, as it conforms to the preceding verb and not to the infinitive. In fact, the infinitive thus becomes an adjunct (something 'added') or complement of the direct object. Thus, in—

I asked *him to go* with us,

him is the direct object of *asked*, but the complete object is *him to go*, *to go* being the infinitive complement of the object 'him.' Again, in—

We expected *them to deliver* it to you,

the direct object 'them' has *to deliver* as its complement. The infinitive 'to deliver' has its own object, *it;* and is modified by the adverbial phrase 'to you.'

Similar to this construction (if not identical with it) is the use of the participle in—

We found *them doing* the work in an indifferent way.
They caught *him trying* to pass the counterfeit bill.

(*a*) The infinitive and its modifiers may be used to complete the object of a preposition; thus—

For *him to undertake it alone* was folly. It was hard for *us to give them up.*

223. Complement of Subject.—By changing the examples above into the passive form of expression, the infinitive becomes a complement to the subject; thus—

He was asked *to go* with us.
They were expected *to deliver* it to you.

Remark.—The infinitive complement is adverbial in sense.

---

*__To the Teacher.__—We have not attempted in this lesson to give a full treatment of that much-discussed element—the *infinitive*. The aim has been to present its more important uses in such a way that the student can readily comprehend them. Nice distinctions between these constructions and others that differ from them only slightly, should not be dwelt upon, as they are puzzling to the student, and of no practical value.

224. Apposition.—The infinitives and participles may be used as nouns in apposition; thus—

Cyrus W. Field's *scheme, to unite* the two continents by a cable, was finally successful.

David's early *occupation, caring* for sheep, fitted him for the inspiration of the twenty-third psalm.

225. Absolute, Independent, etc.—The use of the participle-phrase as an attendant element has been pointed out (214, *Note*). This absolute construction is sometimes carried to the extent of using a second phrase to modify the first; as—

His being guilty having been proved, he was sentenced to be hanged.

But such a wording is awkward and should, if possible, be avoided.

(*a*) Infinitives and participles are used absolutely by pleonasm (216); thus—

To be, or not to be?—*that* is the question.
Feeding the hungry and healing the sick,—*this* was His labor of love.

(*b*) Infinitives and participles are used independently in exclamations; as—

To think of his acting thus! To die; to sleep; to sleep! perchance to dream.
Banished from Rome! What's banished but set free?

(*c*) Infinitives and participles are used independently, by way of introduction, or parenthetically, in the same way that modal adverbs are used; thus—

To be candid, I have but little confidence in the plan.
To be sure, he is not very clever but he is kind-hearted.
There are, to be sure, people who think otherwise.
Strictly speaking, they belong to a different class.
Education, figuratively speaking, is the key to success.

Remark.—In analysis, the infinitives and participles used in this way may be regarded as attendant elements. (215.)

226. From the foregoing, we have the following summary of the uses of infinitives and participles:

1. As Nouns—
   - (*a*) Subject of a sentence. (164, 191[1], 194, and 196.)
   - (*b*) Object of a verb. (164, 191[2], and 196.)
   - (*c*) In the predicate of a sentence. (191[3] and 365 *a*.)
   - (*d*) Object of a preposition. (164, 191[4], and 196.)
   - (*e*) In apposition with a noun. (224.)
2. As Adjectives—qualifying nouns. (164 *a* and 191 *a*.)

3. As Adverbs—

(*a*) Modifying the verb. (164 *b* and 191 *b* [1].)
(*b*) Modifying an adjective. (*Inf.* 191 *b* [2].)
(*c*) Modifying an adverb. (*Inf.* 191 *c* [3].)
(*d*) Adverbially in the following ways—
1. As complements of objects. (222 and 222 *a*.)
2. As complements of passive subjects. (223.)
3. As attendant elements. (225 and 225 *c*.)

4. Absolutely—by pleonasm. (225 *a*.)

(*a*) In exclamations. (225 *b*.)
(*b*) By way of introduction. (225 *c*.)

5. Independently.

227. Tell the uses of the infinitives and participles in the following:

1. Those apples are not good to eat. 2. His father wanted him to be a preacher. 3. I have a letter which I wish you to read. 4. We expect him to return by the first of next month. 5. They were invited to come again. 6. He was told to remain where he was. 7. To go or to stay?—that was a question hard to decide. 8. Delightful task to rear the tender thought! 9. I think it wrong to steal. 10. It is criminal to commit forgery. 11. Do you think it quite right to treat him thus? 12. We consider it a miracle that he was not killed. 13. For him to keep quiet is next to impossible. 14. It is natural for man to indulge in the illusions of hope. 15. His object was to get possession of his father's estate. 16. Vessels carrying rich cargoes are constantly arriving. 17. Their stores being exhausted, they were in danger of starving. 18. Avoid keeping company with the vicious. 19. His having been absent so long made it hard for him to keep up with his class. 20. The wind goes whistling through the trees. 21. Your employer has a right to expect you to serve him faithfully. 22. If you want to be promoted, try to earn more than you are getting.

23. I am glad to think that I am not bound to make the world go right, but only to discover and to do, with cheerful heart, the work that God appoints.—*Jean Ingelow.*

24. Boys flying kites haul in their white-winged birds;
You can't do that way when you're flying words.
"Careful with fire," is good advice we know:
"Careful with words," is ten times doubly so.
Thoughts unexpressed may sometimes fall back dead;
But God himself can't kill them when they're said!

From "Farm Festivals."—*Will Carleton.*

LESSON 33.

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

228. A cheerful temper, joined with innocence, will make beauty attractive, knowledge delightful, and wit good natured.—*Anon.* (221 *a.**)

Earth is our work-house, and Heaven is, or should be, our store-house. Our chief business here is to lay up treasures there.—*Dr. Grynoeus.*

Speak properly, and in as few words as you can, but always plainly; for the end of speech is not ostentation, but to be understood.—*Penn.*

God hath a voice that ever is heard
In the peal of the thunder, the chirp of the bird;
It comes in the torrent, all rapid and strong,
In the streamlet's soft gush as it ripples along;
It breathes in the zephyr, just kissing the bloom;
It lives in the rush of the sweeping simoon;
Let the hurricane whistle, or warblers rejoice,
What do they all tell thee but "God hath a voice?"—*Eliza Cook.*

Knowledge cannot be stolen from us. It cannot be bought or sold. We may be poor, and the sheriff may come and sell our furniture, or drive away our cow, or take our pet lamb, and leave us homeless and penniless; but he cannot lay the law's hand upon the jewelry of our minds.—*E. Burritt.*

Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide,
In the strife of Truth with Falsehood, for the good or evil side;
Some great cause, God's new Messiah, offering each the bloom or blight,
Parts the goats upon the left hand, and the sheep upon the right;
And the choice goes by forever 'twixt that darkness and that light.
* * * * * * * * * *
Then to side with Truth is noble, when we share her wretched crust,
Ere her cause bring fame and profit, and 'tis prosperous to be just;
Then it is the *brave* man chooses, while the coward stands aside,
Doubting in his abject spirit, till his Lord is crucified.—*James Russell Lowell.*

Rugged strength and radiant beauty,—these were one in nature's plan;
Humble toil and heavenward duty,—these will form the perfect man. (216.)
—*Mrs. Hale.*

Language and thoughts are inseparable. Words without thoughts are dead sounds; thoughts without words are nothing. To think is to speak low; to speak is to think loud.—*Max Müeller.*

---

* Paragraph numbers refer to certain constructions explained in lessons just preceding this.

Young women, the glory of your life is to *do* something, and to be something. You may have formed the idea that ease and personal enjoyment are the ends of your life. This is a terrible mistake. *Development*, in the broadest sense and in the highest direction, is the end of your life.—*J. G. Holland.*

No one loves to *tell* a tale of scandal but to him who loves to *hear* it. Learn then, to rebuke and silence the detracting tongue, by refusing to hear. Never make your *ear* the *grave* of another's good name.—*Anon.* (221.)

Cover them over with beautiful flowers;
Deck them with garlands, these brothers of ours, (208.)
Lying so silent by night and by day,
Sleeping the years of their manhood away,—
Years they had marked for the joys of the brave,
Years they must waste in the sloth of the grave.
All the bright laurels they fought to make bloom
Fell to the earth when they went to the tomb.
Give them the meed they have won in the past;
Give them the honors their merits forecast;
Give them the chaplets they won in the strife,
Give them the laurels they lost with their life.
Cover them over,—yes, cover them over,—
Parent and husband and brother and lover;
Crown in your heart these dead heroes of ours,
And cover them over with beautiful flowers.

—*Carleton.*

Reputation is, or should be, the result of character. Character is the sum of individual qualities; reputation, what is generally thought of character, so far as it is known. Character is like an inward and spiritual grace, of which reputation is, or should be, the outward and visible sign. A man may have a good character and a bad reputation, or a bad character and a good reputation; although, to the credit of human nature, which, with all its weakness, is not ignoble, the latter is more common than the former.—*Richard Grant White.*

"How long I shall love him I can no more tell,
Than, had I a fever, when I should be well.
My passion shall kill me before I will show it,
And yet I would give all the world he did know it;
But oh how I sigh, when I think, should he woo me,
I cannot refuse what I know would undo me." * (199, 200.)

---

*Of this passage from Sir George Etherege's "She Would if She Could," Mr. Richard Grant White says: "I do not know in English literature another passage in which the distinction between *shall* and *will* and *would* and *should* is at once so elegantly, so variously, so precisely, and so compactly illustrated."

The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want. He maketh me to lie down in green pastures: he leadeth me beside the still waters. He restoreth my soul: he guideth me in the paths of righteousness for His name's sake. Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil; for thou art with me: thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me. Thou preparest a table before me in the presence of mine enemies: thou hast anointed my head with oil; my cup runneth over. Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life: and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever.—*Twenty-third Psalm.*

LITTLE BROWN HANDS.

They drive home the cows from the pasture,
Up through the long, shady lane,
Where the quail whistles loud in the wheat fields,
That are yellow with ripening grain.
They find in the thick waving grasses
Where the scarlet-lipped strawberry grows;
They gather the earliest snowdrops
And the first crimson buds of the rose.

They toss new hay in the meadow;
They gather the elder-bloom white;
They find where the dusky grapes purple
In the soft-tinted October light.
They know where the apples hang ripest,
And are sweeter than Italy's wines;
They know where the fruit hangs the thickest
On the long thorny blackberry vines.

They gather the delicate sea-weeds,
And build tiny castles of sand;
They pick up the beautiful sea-shells—
Fairy barks that have drifted to land.
They wave from the tall, rocking tree-tops,
Where the oriole's hammock-nest swings;
And at night-time are folded in slumber
By a song that a fond mother sings.

Those who toil bravely are strongest;
The humble and poor become great;
And so from these brown-handed children
Shall grow mighty rulers of state.
The pen of the author and statesman—
The noble and wise of the land— (208.)
The sword, and the chisel, and palette
Shall be held in the little brown hand. —*Mary H. Krout.*

PART II.

FACTS ABOUT NOUNS.

229. Fact 1. The plural of nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular.

Remark.—There are some exceptions to this statement, but as the formation of plurals is a matter of spelling rather than a question of correct construction, the pupil is referred to what has already been said on this point. (129 to 132.)

230. Fact 2. The possessive form of singular nouns is regularly made by adding an apostrophe and the letter *s* ('s); that of plural nouns is made by adding only the apostrophe, unless the plural form does not end with *s*, in which case the possessive sign is the same as for singular nouns.

Remark.—For the possessive sign with phrases and nouns in apposition, and its use to denote *joint* or *individual* ownership, see paragraphs 136, 137, and 363. [For examples of correct usage, see 135 to 139, and 363.]

Correct the errors in the following: [Four are correct.]

1. The boys' hat was lost. 2. Marys' handkerchief was stolen. 3. The Teacher's Journal. 4. The Youth's Companion. 5. The Presidents' Message. 6. The Seamens Bethel. 7. A teachers' desk. 8. The Mens Home has been opened. 9. The babys mother died. 10. The ship's crew were starving. 11. The soldiers' arm was broken. 12. The soldiers guns were captured while they slept. 13. The judges' decision was not satisfactory. 14. The ladys' gloves were returned to her. 15. The ladie's bonnets were alike. 16. She mourned her brothers' death. 17. Another day's work is done. 18. Her husbands misfortune made her sick. 19. Cromwell's the Protectors' reign was brief.

231. Fact 3. A noun limiting a participle should have the possessive form.

Examples: John's failing to pass the examination was a great disappointment to his parents. The jury's disagreeing was a surprise to us.

Correct the following:

1. The man asking the question showed that he was intelligent. 2. The boy attempting to get away proved that he was guilty. 3. The bank failing caused him to commit suicide. 4. The firm selling out was unexpected. 5. The city running into debt was unnecessary. 6. John quitting the farm was a mistake.

232. Fact 4. When a numeral adjective is united with a noun to form a compound adjective, the singular form of the noun is used; but when the numeral is placed before a noun used adverbially to denote distance or measure (79*e*), the plural form of the noun is used.

Examples: A three-foot measure. A four-inch pipe. A ten-pound weight. A platform five feet high. This piece is six yards long. [See 319[2].]

Correct the following:

1. A two-gallons jug; a three-miles run; a six-quarts pail; a ten-inches sewer; a fifty-feet lot; a two-feet rule; a ten-days note. 2. He is six foot tall. 3. The street was three mile long. 4. The field is forty rod wide and eighty rod long. 5. The lots are sixty foot wide. 6. The cloth was two yard wide.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Two are correct.*]

233. [See errors under 139.] 1. Mary's, the carpet weaver, house burned last night. 2. The committee will meet at Jones' the carpenter's house. 3. The measure failed on account of the president neglecting to lay it before the council. 4. Did you read that account of a man being killed yesterday? 5. Another weeks' work is finished. 6. The horse was 15 hand high. 7. They bought a 30 horses power engine. 8. The hog weighed three hundred pound. 9. You will find it at the ten cents counter. 10. The room is twelve foot long and nine foot broad. 11. He is five years old today. 12. We were surprised at the clerk doing that. 13. Had you heard of the child falling and breaking its arm? 14. Did you ever hear of anyone's acting thus?

FACTS ABOUT PRONOUNS.

234. Fact 1. *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, *they*, and *who*, are subject forms used in the following positions: For subjects; in the predicate after a copula verb; as the base of attendant elements; sometimes in apposition. (144, 209, and 215.)

Examples: 1. He and I were playmates. 2. He and she came yesterday. 3. It is I. It is he. It is we. It is she. It is they. It is who? 4. It was I. It

was we. It was he. It was she. It was they. It was who? 5. Who is it? Answer: It is I, we, he, she, or they. 6. Who was it? Answer: It was I, we, he, she, or they. 7. He being rich, they feared to offend him. 8. The laboring people,—they who are the bone and sinew of the nation, have a right to expect this of you. [*Commit to memory examples 3, 4, 5, and 6.*]

Correct the errors in the following: [Two are correct.]

1. Her and you missed it by not coming. 2. Him and me and you have been chosen. 3. Us four were there on time. 4. You and them should come to an understanding. 5. I think it is her. 6. I am not sure about its having been her. 7. It was me. 8. They supposed it was us. 9. Its being them does not alter the case much. 10. We knew it was they.

Note 1.—Errors in the pronoun form frequently occur in answering the question *who?* with a single word; as, Who is it? Answer: "Me." ("It is me.") Incorrect; the answer should be "I." ("It is I.")

Note 2. But this error is most likely to occur after the conjunctions *as*, *than*, and *but*, introducing clauses, the predicates of which are omitted; as, "Few persons are as prompt as him." Incorrect, since the meaning is, "Few persons are as prompt as he [*is*].

11. I never saw a kinder woman than her. 12. You were more fortunate than him and me. 13. No one saw it but him. 14. You cannot write so rapidly as her. 15. We are stronger than them. 16. I am older than him. 17. They are richer than us, but we are just as happy as them. [See 237 *b*.] 18. You are taller than her. 19. I can walk as fast as him. 20. Them being absent, we could not transact the business. 21. We being present, they said but little. 22. Him having resigned, there was a vacancy to be filled. 23. Do you think anyone would do more for you than I?—*me* who have always been your friend?

235. Fact 2. *Me*, *him*, *her*, *them*, *us*, and *whom*, are object forms. They are used: 1. As objects of verbs and prepositions; 2. Sometimes in apposition with another object. [See 144.]

Examples: 1. I met him and her. 2. You wrote to me about them. 3. To whom shall we go? 4. How can I forsake my father?—*him* who has done so much for me?

Correct the errors in the following: [Two are correct.]

1. He sent his regards to you and she. 2. To who did you go for your information? 3. Between you and I, it was him who did it. 4. Did they leave a message for he and I? 5. He invited John and I to dinner. 6. They charged she and her sister full fare. 7. For who did you ask? 8. Who did you see? 9. With who did you sit? 10. To who did you write? 11. Do come to see us.

236. Fact 3. A pronoun limiting a participle takes the possessive form. (231.)

Examples: Their thinking so does not make it so. His being sick prevented my coming. Your going there at that time was unwise.

Correct the errors in the following: [Two are correct.]

1. Us staying away was a mistake. 2. They expecting that of us was absurd. 3. His being rich does not make him happy. 4. I have never known of him being absent. 5. Did he tell you about me having an interest in it? 6. The judge insisted on them answering the question. 7. Her signing the paper settled the whole matter. 8. You asking the question set him to thinking.

237. Fact 4. The form of a pronoun in apposition depends upon whether it stands in apposition with a subject or an object.

[For examples of correct usage, see Fact 1, example 8, and Fact 2, example 4.]

(*a*) The form of a pronoun after the comparatives *as*, and *than*, depends upon whether it is compared with a subject or an object.

Examples: I am not so tall as *he* [is]. I admire it as much as *he* [does]. I admire it as much as [I admire] *him*. I care more for you than *he* [cares for you]. I care more for you than [I care for] *him*.

(*b*) The form of a pronoun after *but* depends upon whether the exception is asserted of a subject or an object. [See 376.]

Examples: No one else cared for me but *he*—[cared for me]. He cared for no one but *me*—[but he cared for me].

Correct the following:

1. The teacher gave we boys a half holiday. 2. Us girls are studying shorthand and typewriting. 3. I have great respect for a morally brave man, he who dares to do right under all circumstances. 4. Will you reject Christ?—He who died for you? 5. Can you not trust me?—I who have always befriended you?

Explain how the following may be either correct or incorrect:

6. I do not enjoy fishing as well as him. 7. The changes in the weather always affect you more than I. 8. Who does more for him than us? 9. You knew more about it than him. 10. You care more for that than me. 11. I like you as well as them. 12. He annoyed me more than her. 13. They have more confidence in you than me.

238. Fact 5. The number of a pronoun should agree with the number of its antecedent.

Examples: Each man gave attention to *his* own duties. The travelers fully realized *their* peril.

Remarks.—Violations of this fact occur in the following ways:

1. When the pronoun refers to one of the indefinite pronouns, *each*, *either*, or *neither* (92), or when the antecedent is limited by one of these words; as, "*Each* man was given their pay." Say '*his* pay.' "*Neither* of them saved their money,"—'*his* (or *her*) money.' "*Each* one in favor of the motion may signify it by raising their right hand,"—'*his* right hand.' [See 378.]

2. When there is a compound antecedent introduced by *neither*, and connected by *nor;* or introduced by *either* and connected by *or;* as, "Neither James nor John wasted their time." Say '*his* time.' "*Either* James or John was dissatisfied with their teacher,"—'*his* teacher.'

3. When the antecedent is one of the members of a compound element (usually the subject), but emphatically distinguished by *not;* as, "The man and not the boy offered *their* assistance,"—'*his* assistance.'

4. When the antecedent is a collective noun used in a singular sense (79 *d*); as, "The firm was ready to move into *their* new store." Say '*its* new store.'

Correct the errors in the following: [Two are correct.]

1. Each one of them expressed their opinion. 2. Each must answer for themselves. 3. Each man undertook to defend themselves. 4. Neither boy treated their parents with respect. 5. Either Jane or Mary had lost their hat. 6. Not one of them saw his mistake. 7. The girl and not her mother broke their arm. 8. Each of them in their turn receive the benefits to which they are entitled. 9. Each of the boys cheerfully do their part of the work. 10. Neither man is willing to apologize to the other for their unkindness. 11. Each of the clerks look after their employer's interests so they may secure promotion. 12. One or the other were wrong in their view of it. 13. Every one should give their name and address each time they write. 14. Neither of them needs his money. 15. The society has just published their annual report.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

239. 1. The use of a pronoun and its antecedent as the subject of the same sentence; as, "George *he* promised to come with me." Omit *he*.

2. The use of *hern*, *ourn*, *yourn*, and *hisn*, for *her own*, or *hers*, *our own*, or *ours*, etc.; also the use of *hisself* for *himself;* as, "The fault was *hern* not mine." "He hurt *hisself* badly." Say 'The fault was *hers* (or 'her own'). 'He hurt *himself* badly.'

3. Using the sign of possession with the possessive form of pronouns; as, *her's, our's, their's, your's, it's.* Leave the apostrophe out.

4. Using the pronoun *them* for the adjective *those;* as, "Did you ask for *them* books?" "*Them* boys are happy." Say '*those* books;' '*those* boys.'

5. Using *it's* for *'tis;* as, "*It's* only a question of time." "*It's* useless to argue with him." Say ''Tis only a question of time.' ''Tis useless to argue with him.'

6. Using *who* to relate to animals or inanimate objects; as, "The dog *who* met us at the gate looked ferocious." Say '*that*' or '*which* met us at the gate.' [See 85, Remark, and 347 *b* and *c.*]

7. **Each other, One another.**—*Each other* applies to but two; *one another* applies to a larger number. "The two are closely related to one another." Say '*to each other.*' "The seven differed from each other." Say '*one another.*'

8. **Something** for *somewhat.*—Using the pronoun 'something' for the adverb 'somewhat;' as, "They look something alike." Say 'somewhat alike.'

9. **Myself.**—This pronoun may be used as a reflexive object (218 *b*) or in apposition for the sake of emphasis; but otherwise, not as the subject or the direct object of a verb. Hence, "They invited John and *myself,*" "Mrs. A. and *myself,*" is incorrect. Use *me* or *I* instead of *myself.*

10. **Somebody else's, Anyone else's.**—These and similar expressions are incorrect; they should be *somebody's else, anyone's else. Else,* in this position, is an adjective meaning 'other,' or 'besides.' It would be absurd to say *somebody besides's, anyone other's.*

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Four are correct.*]

240. 1. No one else was hurt but he. 2. Nobody came but them. 3. Some one else's voice was heard. 4. Nobody's else would do. 5. My wife and myself shall be glad to see you. 6. There aint any use in trying to please him. 7. I haint heard from him for a long time. 8. It's difficult to hear it's voice. 9. If you find a noun or pronoun you must parse them. 10. The horse who refused to go knew more than him. 11. They are all here but her. 12. If any one doubts my word let them say so. 13. To who did you lend my knife? 14. There are people whom might be trusted. 15. Who did you write to? 16. Are you older than him? 17. That's her. 18. I told you it was them. 19. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure which they at first opposed. 20. They were all frightened but I. 21. Charles he knew that his father objected to him going. 22. Did you hear about me being sick? 23. We regret our not being able to accommodate you. 24. Where did you get them apples? 25. That is something like a story I heard yesterday.

FACTS ABOUT ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Remark.—The two modifying parts of speech, adjectives and adverbs, are so similar in many respects that the facts concerning them and the errors in their use can be treated side by side better than separately.

241. Fact 1. *Position and Order of Adjectives.*—Adjectives are usually placed before the nouns they qualify though they sometimes follow them. They should not be unnecessarily separated from their nouns. (52 *a.*)

Note 1.—When two or more adjectives are used to qualify a noun, the one most closely connected with the object described is placed next the noun, and the others are arranged in like order,—the one least connected with it being placed farthest from the noun. If the adjectives follow instead of precede the noun, this order is reversed. When there is no difference in the rank or importance of the adjectives, they should be placed in the order that will sound best, the longest usually nearest the nouns they limit.

Examples: The frail little craft bounded over the clear blue waves. The dew drops on the sweet-scented clover sparkle in the morning sunlight. A dilapidated wooden building was all that remained. The old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket.

"Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear."

Note 2.—The words *first* and *last*, when used with numeral adjectives to limit nouns, are placed before the numeral; as—The first ten pages; the last two hours; the first two houses.

Correct the following:

1. A young, wide-awake, industrious man is wanted. 2. A large, brick, new house has been built there. 3. The golden, beautiful sunset delighted us. 4. A banquet, silver, handsome lamp was presented. 5. You may have the two first trees in each of the three first rows. 6. He bought a gold, large, pen. 7. The decrepit, old, poor man needs help. 8. Mr. A. drives a bay, fine horse.

Remark.—Probably the most common error in the position of adjectives consists in placing descriptive adjectives so that they qualify the amount or quantity of a thing mentioned instead of describing the thing itself; thus—

A new box of books; a hot pail of water; a ripe basket of fruit; a new load of hay; an old barrel of clothes; a new stock of goods; the cold cup of water; a green load of wood; a fresh bunch of flowers; a new pair of shoes.

242. Fact 2. *Position of Adverbs.*—Adverbs are generally placed *before* adjectives or adverbs, *after* a single verb, or *after* the first word in a verb-phrase. (52 *b, c.*)

Example: He is *very* attentive, behaves *quite well*, and is *highly* esteemed.

Remark.—The position of such adverbs as *only*, *also*, and *merely*, depends so much upon the meaning to be conveyed that we cannot always decide whether the adverb is correctly or incorrectly placed unless we know what the speaker or writer means to say. Thus, in 'We only saw Charles,' and 'We saw only Charles' (or 'We saw Charles only,') we have a different meaning, though each of the sentences is correct. The first conveys the idea that we only *saw* Charles,—that we did not speak to him, or something of that kind. The other means that we saw *only* Charles; that is, we did not see anyone but Charles.

Correct such of the following sentences as are obviously incorrect. In the others, change the position of the adverb and note the change in meaning:

1. I like never to hear a person slander his neighbor. 2. He has been misinformed certainly. 3. I only can hope for that. 4. We are only following your orders. 5. He was only elected last week. 6. They have only been requested to sell three of them. 7. I never intend to go there again. 8. The woman and child were only saved. 9. Do not merely read this page but read the other also. 10. If you wish to teach the science of your language only, you may not be pleased with this work. 11. The French nearly lost five thousand men. 12. The productions mostly consist of corn and cotton. 13. The Indians chiefly subsist by hunting and fishing. 14. I only spoke to him; I did not speak to anyone else. 15. He is considered generally insane.

Note.—An adverb should never be placed between an infinitive verb and its "sign" or between a verb and its infinitive object.

16. We are now prepared to promptly fill all orders. 17. It began to slowly disappear. 18. You can depend upon him to faithfully serve you. 19. It is unwise to hastily decide such a question. 20. You should learn carefully to choose your words. 21. They are not disposed to quietly submit to the injustice. 22. He has been heard repeatedly to say it. 23. We were too busy to then attend to the matter. 24. I hope to soon return. 25. They were obliged to forcibly take possession.

243. Fact 3. When a verb asserts an *action* on the part of the subject, the qualifying word that follows the verb is an adverb; but when the verb asserts merely a quality of the subject, or its being (existence) in a certain state, it (the verb) is followed by the adjective.

Examples: The sea was calm. He spoke calmly. The water looks clear. Now we see clearly. She appears ('seems') anxious. They listened anxiously. The tree stands firm. He held on firmly. [See 352 *d.*]

Note.—There is an apparent exception to Fact 4, in such sentences as "The eagle flies high;" but in such cases the word in question may be used either as an adjective or as an adverb. (106 *a.*)

Correct the errors in the following: [Three are correct.]

1. The vessel arrived safely. 2. The post stood firmly. 3. He walked quiet. 4. He spoke hasty. 5. He stood idly, watching the men at work. 6. They ride rapid. 7. It tastes sweetly. 8. She smiled sweet. 9. He spoke plain, distinct, and correct. 10. His strength is near gone. 11. The work is easy done. 12. I stepped softly. 13. The cushion feels softly. 14. That sounds harsh. 15. They reached home safe. 16. He sees good for one so old. 17. No one could say it more forcible than he could. 18. That boy works good. 19. He behaves bad. 20. It looks badly. 21. He looks sickly.

244. Fact 4. Many adjectives and a few adverbs are regularly compared by adding the suffixes *er* and *est*, or the prefixes *more* and *most*, to the positive degree in ascending comparison, or in prefixing *less* and *least* in the descending comparison. [For examples, see 147 and 151.]

(*a*) The comparative degree is used when two objects are compared; the superlative or sublative when more than two are compared.

Examples: He is the taller of the two. She is the youngest of the three. Ruth is less handsome than Jane, but she is the more intelligent of the two.

(*b*) Some adjectives do not admit comparison. (149.)

(*c*) Double comparisons are incorrect. (149, *Note.*)

(*d*) When an object is compared with all others of its kind, the word *other* should follow the comparative *than*.

Example: Bert is quicker than any other boy in school.

If *other* were left out of this sentence, it would mean that Bert is not in school; or, if he is known to be one of the school, the sentence without *other* would mean that Bert is quicker than himself,—which is absurd.

This amounts to a superlative comparison, for the example above is equivalent to "Bert is the quickest boy in school." The following sentence will further illustrate this point:

This paper has a larger circulation than any other in Ohio.

To say that "This paper has the largest circulation of any in Ohio," or "of any other in Ohio," would be self-contradictory and absurd. We may, however, employ the superlative form of comparison in such sentences by using *of all* and omitting *any*, *other*, or *any other*; thus—

This paper has the largest circulation of all [the papers] in Ohio; or, Of all the papers in Ohio, this [paper] has the largest circulation.

Correct the errors in the following: [Three are correct.]

1. He is the smallest of the two. 2. Of the two she is the thoughtfulest. 3. Which is the largest end? 4. Which is the broadest, the top or the bottom? 5. Which is the oldest, you or John? 6. Which is the tallest, Henry or James? 7. This is the better of the two. 8. This horse trots the fastest of the two. 9. Of the two machines, that one costs the most, but it is the easiest sold. 10. He was the most forlornest looking object I ever saw. 11. She is more carefuler than she was formerly. 12. He is less particular now. 13. A more happier pair you never met. 14. This is a more quicker way. 15. He was the most wittiest person I ever met. 16. They bought a more cheaper kind. 17. It is the most perfect work. 18. That is the most complete cyclopedia published. 19. This was more universal than that. 20. A more hopeless case could not be imagined. 21. The large box was the nearest empty. 22. This store sells more goods than any store in this city. 23. We do the largest wholesale business of any other firm in the West.

245. Fact 5. The demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* change their form to agree with the number of the noun they limit. [For examples, see paragraph 150.]

Note.—An error in the use of *these* and *those* is usually followed by an error in the verb-form, as, "*These* kind *are* very rare." Say '*This* kind *is*'—etc.

(*a*) The indefinite article *an* drops the *n* before words beginning with a consonant sound. [See 150 *a* and 349 *b*.]

Correct the following:

1. He is a honest man. 2. The child had an large apple. 3. He gave me a answer. 4. The train is a hour late. 5. He was given a opportunity. 6. A ounce of prevention is worth more than an hundred pounds of cure. 7. War calls out many an hero, and exhibits many an heroic act. 8. These class of goods are not profitable. 9. Those kind are less expensive.

246. Fact 6. When two negative words are used in the same clause, the second destroys the first.

Correct the following:

1. I don't want no coffee. 2. He didn't have no money. 3. He can't say nothing to you. 4. He doesn't know nothing about it. 5. She doesn't go nowhere. 6. He doesn't stop for nothing.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

247. 1. **An** (or *a*) is incorrectly used after *kind*, *sort*, and similar words

followed by *of*. Thus, "Do you know what kind of an apple that is?" "I never heard of that sort of a machine." Omit the *an* (or *a*) after *of*.

2. **Afraid.**—This adjective is much used as though it were a transitive verb; as, "I am *afraid* that it is lost." "He is *afraid* you will get hurt." "We were *afraid* that he would be defeated." The correct word in such sentences is the transitive verb *fear*. Say 'I fear [that] it is lost.' 'He fears you will get hurt.' 'We feared that'—etc. (207 *a*, Remark.)

3. **Already.**—This adverb is very often misused or, rather, *misplaced*, principally by those of German birth and rearing. Thus, it is common to hear such expressions as "I knew that already," "I have finished it already." The awkwardness of these and similar sentences comes from using *already* after the predicate instead of placing it before the verb or between the two parts of the verb-phrase, thus: "I already knew that." "I have already finished it." However, the "already," in such sentences as the last one, is really superfluous.

4. **Back** for *ago*.—"I heard from him awhile *back*." "I saw him some time *back*." Say 'awhile ago,' 'some time ago.'

5. **Better** for *more*.—"It is *better* than a week since I saw him." Say 'It is *more* than a week since I saw him.'

6. **Good.**—This already overworked adjective is made to do service for the adverb *well;* as, "She sings *good*." "He writes *good*." Say 'She sings well.' 'He writes well.'

7. **Here** and **There.**—These two adverbs are incorrectly used after the adverbs *this* and *that;* as, "This *here* book is more interesting than that *there* one." Say 'This book is more interesting than that one.'

8. **How** for *that*.—The adverb *how* is sometimes incorrectly used for the conjunction *that;* as, "Did I tell you *how* he thought we ought to allow him a discount?" Say 'he thought that'—etc.

9. **Least.**—"Of two evils choose the *least*." Say 'the *less*.'

10. **Most** for *almost*.—In the following, and similar sentences, the adjective *most* is incorrectly used for the adverb *almost:* "I see him *most* every day." "We are *most* there." "He was *most* starved." Say 'almost every day,'—etc.

11. **Past** for *by*.—The adjective *past* is very commonly misused for the preposition *by;* as, "Have you seen him go *past* here lately?" "I went *past* his house yesterday." Say 'by here;' 'by his house.'

Past is correctly used as an adverb when there is no object following it; as, "The bullets whistled past."

> "At times, from the fortress across the bay,
> The alarum of drums swept past."—*Longfellow.*

12. **Plenty** for *plentiful.*—The noun *plenty* is incorrectly used for the adjective *plentiful* in such sentences as, "Peaches are *plenty* this year."

13. **Real,** which is an adjective, is often incorrectly used in the place of *very* or *quite* to modify a verb or an adjective; as, "I am *real* glad to see you." "It looks *real* nice." Say 'I am very glad to see you.' 'It looks very nice.'

14. **Since** for *ago.*—"He visited us about two weeks *since.*" Say 'two weeks *ago.*' *Since* has reference to a lapse of time; as, "It is a year since I saw him."

15. **Some.**—This adjective is often misused for the adverb *somewhat*, as in the following sentences: "I am *some* tired." "They were *some* weary with their long tramp." Say 'I am somewhat tired.' 'They were somewhat'—etc.

16. **Sociable** for *social.*—The adjective *sociable* is often misused for *social*, both as a noun and as an adjective. Thus, "A sociable (or 'sociable gathering') will be held at Mr. D.'s house next Wednesday evening." Say 'a social' or 'a social gathering.' "Sociable" is an adjective applicable only to persons.

17. **Sooner** for *rather.*—"I would *sooner* go than not." Say 'I would *rather* go than not.'

18. **Such a** for *so.*—The use of the adjective-phrase *such a* ('kind') for the adverb *so* is a very common error; as, "I never saw such a large apple," which means, literally taken, 'I never saw a large apple of that kind.' It should be, 'I never saw so large an apple.' (69[6].)

19. **The "Articles."**—In comparing a thing with itself in different capacities, the article should not be used a second time. Thus—"That horse is a better pacer than trotter," means that the horse paces better than he trots. But if we should say "That horse is a better pacer than a trotter," our language would mean that the horse paces better than a trotting horse paces. So the sentences—

> Corporal Brown was as good a fighter as an officer,
> Mr. Edwards is a better teacher than a minister,

do not mean the same as when the *an* (or *a*) is omitted after the comparatives *than* and *as.* So we find that the article, though a little word, is sometimes a very important one. Its use or omission may change the meaning of the entire sentence.

(*a*) When connected adjectives describe *the same thing*, the article should not be used, except before the first descriptive; but if the adjectives describe different things, the article should be repeated. Thus, "a red and white flag" means one flag, while "a red and a white flag" means two flags.

(*b*) When connected nouns denote *different things*, the article should be repeated, but if the nouns are but different names for the same thing, the article should not be repeated; thus, "the cashier and the bookkeeper" means two persons, while "the cashier and bookkeeper" means one.

(*c*) The article should not be used before a title or name used merely as such; as, "The Queen conferred on him the title of Earl" (not *an* Earl.) "The youngest son of a duke is called Marquis" (not *a* Marquis.)

20. **Very.**—This word is sometimes incorrectly used to modify the perfect participle of a verb; as, "She is a *very* educated woman." "He was *very* pleased to hear from you." Say 'very well educated;' 'very much pleased.'

21. **What for?** for *why?* as, "*What* did you do that *for?*" or, worse still, "*What for* did you do that?" Say, merely, 'Why did you do that?'

22. **Whether or no.**—This expression is incorrect. The adverb should be *not*—'whether or not;' as, "I shall go whether or not," the meaning of which is, 'I shall go *whether* [it rains] *or* [does] *not*' [rain], or something of that kind. "You must do it whether or not;" that is, '*whether* [you will] *or* [will] *not.*'

23. **Worse** for *more.*—"I want to see him *worse* than ever." Say '*more* than ever.'

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Three are correct.*]

248. 1. It was such a warm day. 2. Of two methods adopt the shortest. 3. The old woman has a fresh basket of eggs. 4. You must go whether or no. 5. The boy worked faithful. 6. The deep cannon's roar aroused them. 7. The clock ticks softly. 8. The speaker only talked of a few things. 9. The shrill whistle's scream broke the solemn night's stillness. 10. Not only he was poor but lazy. 11. It requires a few comparatively short years. 12. They are most done. 13. We have a fine lot of silk ladies' gloves. 14. Otherwise, the parties will not only be disappointed but the goods will be left on our hands. 15. The boat glides smooth. 16. He owned a rich tract of land. 17. Did you ever see such a careless fellow? 18. He is older than any one in his family. 19. The flea can jump farther than any insect of its size. 20. The tree is forty feet high. 21. Will you buy two pair of boots? 22. Which of them two boys can ride the best? 23. It is not such a great distance as I thought it was. 24. Which is the oldest of the two? 25. He had two coats, an old and new one. 26. The elephant has a powerful and a flexible trunk, which he always carries with him on a journey. 27. I counted thirteen sails of vessels lying at anchor in the stream. 28. The bear was hungry and began to growl savage. 29. He rode past me so quick I scarce saw him. 30. That is easier said than done. 31. I am real hungry. 32. She never considers the quality, but merit of her visitors. 33. I was aware of that already. 34. What do you suppose he asked that question for? 35. He would make a better farmer than a lawyer. 36. It is our intention to still further reduce the running expenses. 37. This paper has a larger circulation than any other paper in the world. 38. Of all her classmates, that girl is the brightest. 39. This kind of an error is very common.

FACTS ABOUT VERBS.

249. Fact 1. In asserting present action, possession, or existence, or past existence, the singular or the plural form of a verb is used according as it is necessary to have it agree with a singular or plural subject.

Exception: The pronoun *I* takes the plural form of the verb to agree with it as the first person singular, except when mere present or past existence is asserted by *am* or *was*. [For examples, see paragraphs 157–8–9.]

Correct the errors in the following: [Three are correct.]

1. The men quits work at six o'clock. 2. The trains was late. 3. How does your plans succeed? 4. The skies was clear. 5. The clouds has disappeared. 6. The stars shines. 7. Those papers is valuable. 8. I see him almost every day. 9. You was absent. 10. There is several waiting. 11. They was delighted with the pictures. 12. We was disappointed. 13. The switchmen has struck. 14. Five clerks was employed. 15. The books is interesting. 16. The nights was clear. 17. The days is getting longer. 18. Their prices seem reasonable. 19. The cars goes slowly across the bridge. 20. The farmers works hard.

Remark.—Errors in the number-form of the verb are most likely to occur when the singular subject is followed by a phrase containing a plural noun.

21. A pound of raisins cost twenty cents. 22. The book of laws were lost. 23. A carload of horses were shipped last week. 24. The number of depositors have greatly increased. 25. A bill of the goods were forwarded. 26. None of the men understand you.

(*a*) Nouns that have but one form for both numbers (132) require the singular or the plural verb, according to the sense in which they are used. Thus, we say—

'The sheep *were* sheared,' or 'the sheep *was* sheared.' 'Deer *like* salt,' or 'a deer *likes* salt.' 'These fish *are* fresh,' or 'this fish *is* fresh.'

Remark.—Whether the noun in such cases is used in the singular or plural sense may generally be known by the article or the demonstrative preceding it. (245.)

(*b*) When the subject is a collective noun (79 *d*) in the singular, the singular form of the verb is used if reference is made to the body or collection as a whole; but if the individuals are referred to, the plural form of the verb is used.

Examples: The audience was composed of men and boys. The audience

were pleased with the lecture. The army was defeated. The army were loyal to their commander.

Remark.—*Pleasure* and *loyalty* are qualities which cannot be asserted of collections.

(*c*) When the subject is plural in form, though either singular or plural in sense, the plural form of the verb is used.

Examples: The goods have been forwarded by express. The assets of the firm are as follow. His remains rest in Westminster Abbey.

Note.—When the plural-form noun may be displaced by a synonym having the singular form, the singular of the verb may be used. The *news* ('intelligence' or 'information') was gladly received.

27. Those cannon was captured at Gettysburg. 28. That trout were hard to catch. 29. The committee were composed of two ladies and one gentleman. 30. The committee are ready to report. 31. The army were disbanded. 32. The crowd was impatient. 33. The congregation were large. 34. The class are small. 35. The class was disappointed. 36. The crew was cruelly treated. 37. The crew were reduced in numbers. 38. The crowd are very noisy. 39. The fleet of vessels are a pretty sight. 40. A party of friends is coming. 41. Our party were made up of ladies and gentlemen. 42. The number of mistakes were a matter of surprise to us. 43. A number of mistakes was made. 44. The scissors was lost. 45. The ashes is in the way. 46. Molasses has risen in price. 47. His clothes was ruined.

Use each of the following words as the subject of a sentence: *Shears, wages, measles, riches, tongs, mumps.*

250. Fact 2. Whether the singular or plural form of a verb shall be used with a compound subject depends upon whether the assertion is made about one thing or more than one.

[For examples, see paragraph 155.]

(*a*) Singular subjects connected by *and* require the plural form of the verb.

Exception 1. When the nouns connected by *and* form a single name, or refer to the same person, the singular form of the verb is used; as, "The wife and mother kneels in prayer." "The husband and father was gone."

Exception 2. When the nouns connected by *and* are emphatically distinguished by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the singular form of the verb is used; as, "Each day and each hour gives opportunities."

Exception 3. When nouns of different numbers are connected by *and*, followed by *not*, the verb agrees with the first one; as, "Money and not promises is what we want." "Votes and not talk were what the candidate needed."

(*b*) Singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor*, or by any conjunction that emphatically distinguishes one of the subjects from the other, require the singular form of the verb.

Examples: Either the horse or the cow is to be sold. Neither the President nor his secretary was present. The man as well as the boy was guilty. Wheat but not corn was raised there in abundance.

Exception 1. When the members of a compound subject connected by *or* or *nor* are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the last one; as, "Either he or they are to blame." "One or both were present." "Either you or he is responsible." "Neither you, he, nor I deserve the credit for it."

Correct the errors in the following sentences, and tell which statement or exception applies to each: [Two are correct.]

1. That boy and his sister goes to our school. 2. The man and his son was both blind. 3. Every man, every woman, and every child were numbered. 4. All work and no play make Jack a dull boy. 5. Principle and not policy are to be thought of first. 6. The horse together with the buggy and a set of harness is to be sold by auction tomorrow. 7. "Sunshine and Shadow" are the title of a book. 8. The boy's mother but not his father deserve great credit. 9. The ambition and the avarice of man is the sources of his unhappiness. 10. Her beauty and not her talents attract attention. 11. Out of the same mouth proceeds blessing and cursing. 12. Gold or U. S. Treasury notes is a legal tender for the payment of debts. 13. Neither the house nor the lot are worth much. 14. Good order in our affairs, and not mean savings, produce great profits. 15. Whether one person or more were concerned in it, we cannot tell. 16. Riches, honor, and pleasure steals away the heart from religion. 17. Neither the captain nor the sailors was acquainted with the coast. 18. One or both of the witnesses was present. 19. Are one or both of the banks closed?

251. Fact 3. When *who*, *which*, or *that*, is the subject of a clause, the verb in the clause agrees with the antecedent.

[For examples, see paragraph 118 *a*.]

Correct the following:

1. These are the times that tries men's souls. 2. It was the poor people who was oppressed. 3. The statistics which has been published are not complete. 4. The questions that is to be discussed are of interest to all.

252. Fact 4. When *who*, *which*, or *what*, is used in asking a question, the number of a verb depends upon whether the question is asked about one thing or more than one. (154.)

Correct the following:

1. Who is those boys? 2. What was the questions? 3. Which was those? 4. Which is the ones you want? 5. Who was his assistants?

253. Fact 5. When the indefinite '*there*' is the subject, the verb conforms to the number of the noun or pronoun following it.

Examples: There is one thing to be done. There are several points that should be settled. (207 *b.*)

Correct the following:

1. There is a few questions I would like to ask. 2. There was several accidents happened. 3. There is few so careful as him. 4. There has been others who was just as deserving as her. 5. There was some doubts about it.

254. Fact 6. In passive verb-phrases and phrases denoting completed time, the perfect participle of the verb is used. (166 *d.*)

Examples: I have seen an end of all perfection. She has gone to walk. The letter has been written. He had lain there three days. They were given nothing in return. It was begun long ago. He was beaten.

Correct the errors in the following: [Two are correct.]

1. The apples were froze on the trees. 2. He has been saw there by several. 3. The ship was sank by the enemy. 4. The meal was ate in silence. 5. Our kindness was forgot. 6. The letter was wrote hastily. 7. I am nearly froze. 8. The work was did for I done it myself. 9. The price of wheat has fallen. 10. He has wore that hat a year. 11. The check should have been wrote with ink. 12. You should have came. 13. I would have came if I could. 14. The man had became discouraged. 15. I have came a long distance. 16. The house is began but not finished. 17. My knife was stole. 18. Have you saw him lately? 19. The horses have ran away. 20. He should have took a receipt. 21. They will have saw their best days. 22. We shall have ran the race and finished the course. 23. They were driven out of their own homes.

255. Fact 7. In stating general truths, and in speaking of present facts, the present-time form of the verb is used.

Examples: Plato taught that the soul is immortal. Columbus was scoffed at for believing that the earth is round.

Correct the following:

1. Christ taught that love was the fulfilling of the law. 2. The teacher told us that every star was a sun. 3. Who was that man we just passed? 4. Am I glad? I should say I was. 5. He proved that the earth was round.

256. Fact 8. In subordinate clauses of *condition* (188) introduced by *if*, *though*, or *unless*, the past *were* is used in the present time, with either singular or plural subjects. *Were* is also used to denote present time in an objective clause after a *wish*, and after *as if*, or *as though*, connecting an adverbial clause to a present-time verb. (188 *a*, *b*.)

"If I were a voice, a persuasive voice, I would travel this wide world o'er."

"Would she were mine, and I today, like her a harvester of hay."

[For further examples, see 188.]

Correct the errors in the following: [One is correct.]

1. If I was him I should go. 2. If he was here he would decline the nomination. 3. If I was him I should resign. 4. If we was to tell you, you would not believe it. 5. Would that she was here. 6. I wish you was going with us. 7. Don't you wish it were yours? 8. Was he ever so great his conduct would debase him. 9. If it was otherwise we might consider your proposal. 10. Unless I was sure of it I should not stay. 11. They act as if they was glad of it.

257. Fact 9. *Shall* with the first person, and *will* with the second and third persons, denote simply future time, so far as the speaker is concerned. *Will* with the first person, and *shall* with the second and third persons, indicate a promise or determination on the part of the speaker.

Note.—*Should* and *would* follow the rule for *shall* and *will*.

[For examples, see paragraph 173 *b*; also 366, and the last exercise on p. 97.]

Correct the following:

1. I promise you it will be as you wish it. 2. He will do the work for I shall compel him to do it. 3. I will drown for nobody shall help me. 4. I hope I will see you soon. 5. You will hear from me tomorrow. 6. He will obey my rules or I shall punish him. 7. When will we three meet again? 8. I think I will not go. 9. Shall you promise me to see to it? 10. Will we go to the concert tonight?

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

258. 1. Using a perfect participle to express past time.

Correct the following:

1. We are quite sure he done it. 2. I seen him there yesterday. 3. They come

by boat last night. 4. The boy run as fast as he could. 5. I eat my breakfast in a hurry. 6. He rung the bell violently and we all sprung to our feet. 7. She sung two pieces. 8. The sun sunk from sight.

2. Using a present perfect verb-phrase to denote a time previous to that indicated by a subordinate clause following it.

Example: I have graduated from the high school, since when I have been attending the business college. Omit the first *have*.

3. Using the "auxiliary" part of a verb-phrase by itself after *as* or *than*, when the rest of the phrase has not been given in the preceding clause.

Note.—This is one of the most common errors in every-day talk and writing.

Examples: I will give as much as he *has*. You had done more for me than they *would*. In these examples, the rest of the verb-phrase after *has* and *would* cannot be supplied from the same sentence; for "as he *has give*" and "than they *would done*" do not make sense. Say 'as much as he has *given*;' 'more than they would *do*,' or 'would *have* done.'

Remark.—When the correct form of the principal verb can be supplied *from the same sentence*, it may be omitted; as, "You have not tried as hard as he has," or simply, "as hard as he." (351.)

4. Using the infinitive "sign" without its verb; as—

"I have never gone there and do not intend to." "He has not paid it nor does he expect to." [See Error 3 above. However, the Remark under Error 3 does not apply to the use of the infinitive "sign" by itself.] Say 'and do not intend to go;' 'nor does he expect to do so,' or 'to pay it.'

5. Using the present perfect form of an infinitive after the past form of a verb, or after a present perfect verb-phrase; as—

He intended to have gone. They had hoped to have been invited. Say 'He intended to go.' 'They had hoped to be invited.'

6. Using an indefinite expression as to time before a definite time mentioned in the same sentence; as—

I used to do that last fall. We used to go there last year. Say 'I did that last fall.' 'We went there last year.'

7. Using the active form of a verb with a passive meaning; as—

One *tires* of hearing it. The reader soon *wearies* of such stuff. Say 'becomes tired,' 'grows, or becomes weary'—etc.

8. Using the wrong subject for a passive verb-phrase; as—

All bills are requested to be paid at once. By which is meant 'All persons (or customers) are requested to pay their bills at once.'

9. Using the archaic and the common forms of verbs in the same sentence. (169.)

Example: If *thou* will be diligent *thou* shall succeed. Use *you* instead of *thou*, or change *will* and *shall* to the archaic forms—*wilt* and *shalt*. (377.)

10. **Aint**, etc.—The use of *aint* for 'is not,' or 'am not;' *haint* for 'has not,' or 'have not;' *taint* for 'it is not.' Such expressions are very slovenly.

11. **As follows, As follow.**—When *that which* may be inserted after *as*, the verb should be *follows;* but when the construction requires *those which*, the verb should be *follow*. Examples: "His statement was *as* [that which] *follows*." "His words were *as* [those which] *follow*."

When the predicate before *as* is complete, or when the things referred to are mixed with other matter, *as follows* should be used, the meaning in such cases being '*as* [shown by that which] *follows*.' For examples, see paragraphs 55, 69, 70, 85, 168, 258[19], and 303[1].

12. **Don't** for *doesn't*.—The use of *don't* for *doesn't* is a very common error. The former is a contraction of 'do not,' the latter of 'does not.' When you are in doubt as to which you should use, think or speak the two words in full to see if the verb agrees with the subject. For example: "He don't understand it." This sentence in full would read "He do not understand it," which is incorrect, just as it would be incorrect to say "We doesn't understand it," both being contrary to Fact 1 (249). The former should be 'He doesn't understand it;' the latter, 'We don't understand it.' *I* is the only singular subject with which *don't* should be used.

13. **Daresn't.**—This contraction is often incorrectly used with a plural subject; as, "You daresn't do it," which is equivalent to "You dares not do it." [See remarks under Error 3.] *Daren't* and *daresn't* are not, however, good contractions, and should not be used.

14. **Had rather, Had better.**—These very common expressions are not logically correct. They should be *would rather*, and *might better;* as—

I would rather stay at home than to go, *not* I had rather stay at home—etc.

You might better leave your work for a while, *not* You had better leave—etc.

Remark.—In these two sentences, *rather* and *better* are merely adverbs, hence they are not a part of the verb-phrases. 'Had stay,' and 'had leave' are incorrect combinations of the past *had* with the present *stay* and *leave*. [See Error 15, next page; also paragraph 380.]

15. **Had have.**—*Had* may follow *have*; as— "I have had the letter copied," "We have had several liberal offers," etc., but *have* should never be used after *had* in a verb-phrase, since the past form of a verb should never precede the present or present perfect form. Hence, such expressions as "If I had have known that," "Had you have kept your promise," are incorrect. Omit *have*.

16. **Had ought.**—For the reason given above, *had* is not only superfluous, but incorrect in sense in such sentences as— "He had ought to go," "You had ought to have seen it." Say 'He ought to go,' 'You ought to have'— etc.

17. **It's.**—The use of *it's* for *'tis*. [See Error 5, paragraph 239.]

18. **Lie** and **Lay.**—Much of the confusion and misuse of these troublesome words may be avoided by remembering that *lie* means 'rest,' while *lay* means transitive action, that is, action affecting an object. Their principal parts are

Lie, lay, lain; active, *lying*. *Lay, laid, laid;* active, *laying*.

Examples of correct usage:

Lie.—I lie down a while each day. The book lies on the table. They are lying on the grass. He lay abed yesterday until nine o'clock. It had lain there all day. The farm has lain idle a long time.

Lay.—I will lay it away for you. Lay the book on the table. She laid her gloves on the counter. We have laid their plans well. We were laying the walk yesterday. (381.)

Correct the following: 1. It laid there all day. 2. Lie the ruler on the desk. 3. You might better lay down and rest awhile. 4. They have lain the boards cross-wise. 5. I would rather lie my money by for a "rainy day." 6. I had been laying on the grass. 7. The hen has lain four eggs. 8. Go and lay down on the lounge. 9. They were laying in ambush. 10. Lie the books on the table and let them lay there.

19. **Mistaken.**—"You are *mistaken*." Say 'You mistake,' or 'in error,' or 'incorrect,' if such is your meaning. *Mistaken* has a different meaning.

20. **Of** for *have.*—*Of* is sometimes carelessly used in the place of *have* after *might, could, would, should,* or *ought to;* as, "You might of gone with us." "You ought to of told us."

21. **Raise** for *rise.*—These words are both verbs, but *raise* is transitive and must have an object. Thus, the following sentences are correct:

Did you raise the money? The farmer raises corn. They will raise the barn. They raised the flag. Each one in favor of this may raise his right hand.

The following are incorrect:

Do you think the river will raise? When will the moon raise? The bread

did not raise. The balloon began to raise. The sun raises at five o'clock. The river is raising. The price of wheat did not raise after all.

(*a*) *Raise* (always a verb) is incorrectly used as a noun, thus: "There was a slight raise in the land." "There was a general raise in prices." The noun in these and similar sentences should be *rise*.

22. **Says** for *said*.—In such expressions as "Says I, what will you do?" "Says he, that's what I think," the past form of the verb (*said*) should be used.

23. **See** for *saw*.—"I see him there yesterday." Say 'I saw him'—etc.

24. **Sit** and **Set**.—These two words are often misused, but most of the errors may be avoided by remembering that *sit* means to rest, to be in a position of rest, or to be in session, as of a court; while *set* means action, 'to put a thing in place,' 'to appoint;' as 'to set a day' for doing something. The principal parts of the two words are as follow:

Sit, sat, sat; active, *sitting*. *Set, set, set;* active, *setting*.

Examples of correct usage:

Sit.—Will you sit and talk awhile? Please sit in the easy chair. We sat and talked for an hour. They had been sitting but a short time. The hen is sitting. The court sits the first Tuesday in October. [See 382.]

Set.—You have set the lamp in the wrong place. I had set a time for doing the work. They are setting out trees. The sun sets at six o'clock. (382 *a*.)

Correct the following:

1. He set as still as a mouse. 2. We have set until we are tired. 3. He sits a bad example. 4. We sat the hen and she is setting. 5. Please set down and stay a while. 6. How long have you been setting here? 7. The sun is sitting. 8. When will the court set again. 9. The blind man was setting by the wayside. 10. They are sitting fence posts.

25. **Thinks I,** or **thinks's I,** for *I thought;* as, "Thinks I, I'll watch and see." "Thinks's I to myself, I'll see about that." Say 'I thought'—etc.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Three are correct.*]

259. 1. A bushel of apples sell for a dollar. 2. They expected to have arrived by boat. 3. The tide is raising. 4. Haint you going with us? 5. It had been lain carefully. 6. We shall have ran the race. 7. No, I aint. 8. To set up late is bad for one's health. 9. The price of wheat did not raise after all. 10. We had hoped to have heard from him again. 11. It has laid there for some time. 12. Taint very far. 13. The fireworks was what they was depending on to draw the crowd. 14. I sat my watch by correct time yesterday. 15. I hoped to have seen you before you left the city. 16. Set the pail on the bench and

let it set. 17. He aint got any money. 18. He would have been pleased to have met you. 19. He is as cross as a sitting hen. 20. She desired to have come. 21. You have drove too fast. 22. Have you ever spoke to him? 23. Will I bring you a pen and some paper? 24. The meaning of your words are doubtful. 25. One half the mob was driven back. 26. Do set down and rest yourself. 27. Don't set on the damp grass. 28. The governor in company with his staff was here. 29. He and Johnny goes swimming every day. 30. The committee were unanimous in its action. 31. Where was you when the bell rung? 32. There's ten of us going. 33. Yes, says I, we'll go together. 34. Thinks I to myself, I'll do it. 35. He has broke my pencil. 36. The ship lays in the harbor. 37. He has sprained his ankle, since which time he has not been able to work. 38. She has taken a complete course in music, since when she has been engaged in teaching. 39. He ought to have known better.

FACTS ABOUT PREPOSITIONS.

260. Fact 1. Regarding this part-of-speech, the important fact to be observed is that appropriate prepositions should follow certain words, the preposition in any case depending upon the meaning to be expressed. [For list of appropriate prepositions, see 324.]

Correct the errors in the following: [Five are correct.]

1. He was accused for stealing the goods, but the jury acquitted him from it. 2. The two boys were inseparable to each other. 3. The old man leaned against his staff and told them his story. 4. He listened at the music of the waves. 5. John's mother was frightened at the news of his narrow escape. 6. The peasants are dying with cholera. 7. Garfield graduated from Hiram College. 8. The soldier was killed by a stray bullet. 9. The dying child opened her eyes and smiled at me. 10. The opposition against the Chinese in this country seems to grow. 11. In accordance to an old custom the president annually issues a proclamation for a national thanksgiving day. 12. Napoleon was banished from France and kept a prisoner in the island of St. Helena. 13. Three boys agreed with themselves to buy a melon. 14. The grocer was impatient with the clerk for his awkwardness. 15. What's the matter of him? 16. James reads in the Bible for his mother. 17. The resources of the United States are adequate for the support of many millions more people. 18. Were you ever admonished against doing wrong or reminded of your duty in this matter? 19. Life in the country is quite different than it is in the city. 20. Persons are often frightened by ghosts. 21. They are generally good for flattering who are good at nothing else. 22. The poor man was healed from his wound. 23. He practiced medicine in the south. 24. The immigrants landed in New York. 25. The letter was dated from Dublin.

261. Fact 2. When a participle is used as a noun and is preceded by an article, it should be followed by a preposition.

Examples: By the observing of the rules of health one may avoid sickness. A liking for liquor was one of his inheritances.

Remark.—The opposite of the above is true, that is, if the article is omitted before the participial noun, the preposition should be omitted after it.

Example: Observing the rules of health will enable us to avoid sickness.

Correct the following:

1. The reading good books improves the mind. 2. Learning shorthand requires patience. 3. Appointing of postmasters is a big task for the President. 4. The educating children is a responsible undertaking.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

262. 1. Repeating a preposition after a verb, the same preposition having been used to introduce a preceding phrase.

Example: At which hotel did you stay at? Omit the last "at."

2. Using the preposition "of" and a transitive verb before the same object.

Example: "He did not remember of seeing you." Omit *of*.

3. **At, By.**—Goods are sold *by* auction, not *at* auction. We may buy things *at* an auction, but the selling is *by* auction, since "auction" signifies the manner of selling; as, "How did they dispose of their stock? Answer: "By auction."

4. **At fault.**—"He is at fault in the matter." Say 'in fault' or 'in error.' *At fault* is a hunting phrase meaning "off the scent." *In fault* should be used when blame is expressed; *in error*, when the person is incorrect.

5. **Below, Under.**—These words have reference to *place*. They should not be used in the sense of *less* or *fewer* when reference is made to an amount or number; as, "The total is below one hundred dollars." "There were under fifty present." Say '*less* than one hundred dollars,' '*fewer* than fifty'— etc.

6. **Differ with, Differ from.**—Both these expressions are correct. *Differ from* should be used when a mere courteous difference of opinion is meant. *Differ with* is correct when there is a positive disagreement, especially when the difference leads to a quarrel or hot dispute.

7. **In** for *into*.—When entrance is denoted, *into* should be used instead of *in*.

Examples: He came into (not *in*) the room. We got into (not *in*) the carriage.

Change *in* to *into* in the following sentences and notice the change in meaning:

He jumped in the river. He walked in the water. The guide led the way in the cave. They were driven in the pasture. The captain urged his horse in the thickest of the fight. The people ran in the street. The team ran in the field.

8. **Like** for *as*.—Both these words express similarity, but *like* (prep.) compares things, expressing similarity of *quality* or *appearance;* while *as* (conj.) compares *actions.*

Examples: He holds the pen as you do but his writing does not look like yours. She does not look like you but she talks just as you do. I feel as if I ought to go. Do not say, 'I feel *like* I ought to go.'

9. **On, Upon.**—In many connections these words are interchangeable; in others, however, there is a positive difference between their meanings. The distinction is as follows: *On* means merely over, or resting on a thing; *upon* implies or conveys the idea of motion.

Example: "The boy climbed *upon* the wagon." "He rode *on* the wagon."

In the following sentences, change *on* to *upon*, or *upon* to *on*, and note the change in meaning:

The dog ran upon the bridge. The man fell on the sidewalk. The guns were loaded upon the wagon. The children ran on the ice.

10. **Onto** for *on* or *upon* is a gross error; as, for example, "The cat jumped *onto* the table." This is an absurd statement, for once *on* the table the cat could not jump *to* it. The cat jumps *upon* the table, not *on* the table. Jumping *on* the table is like walking *on* the floor, rolling *on* the ground, running *on* the ice, and so forth.

11. **Over, Above.**—Like *below* and *under* (Error 5, above), these words have reference to place. They are often incorrectly used for *more than;* as—"He lives above a mile from here." Say 'more than'—etc.

12. **Per.**—*Per* is a Latin preposition and should not be used before English nouns denoting time, number, or amount. Thus, we say, '*per* diem' (day), '*per* annum' (year), '*per* capita' (head); but we should not say 'per day,' 'per year,' 'per head,' 'per yard,' 'per foot,' and so forth. Instead, say 'so much *a* head,' '*a* yard,' '*a* year,' and so forth. [See 349.]

13. **Without** for *unless*.—*Without* is a preposition and should never be used as a conjunction to introduce a clause; as, "No one need apply without he comes recommended." "They would not come without we made them a definite offer." Say '*unless* he comes,' 'unless we made'—etc. *Except* is also sometimes misused for *unless* in such sentences.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Two are correct.*]

263. 1. This one is quite different to that. 2. His majority is under five hundred. 3. He put his hand in his pocket. 4. Do you approve of such conduct? 5. By what route will you go by? 6. The house stood over fifty feet from the street. 7. Will you accept of this token of respect? 8. In compliance to your request, we mail you our price-list. 9. I threw it into the fire. 10. The number present was below fifty. 11. I do not remember of saying it, but I will try to recollect of it. 12. At what hotel did you stop at? 13. Working in an office is different than working on a farm. 14. He came in the city. 15. She is over eighty years old. 16. She was admitted in the class. 17. He jumped onto the platform just as the train started. 18. With which pen did you write with? 19. He owns above two hundred acres of land. 20. We rushed in the depot. 21. To what resort will you go to this summer? 22. The child fell in the cistern. 23. Of whom does he remind you of? 24. We got into the car.

CONJUNCTIONS.

264. Concerning this part-of-speech, the only fact of a general nature is that certain co-ordinate conjunctions correspond with other words (adjectives and adverbs) after which they are properly used. These words are called "correlatives." [See paragraph 114.] The following correlatives are the only ones that require special attention:

(*a*) **As** should follow **as** (adv.) when equality is expressed, or in asking a question as to whether there is equality.

Examples: He can write *as* well *as* anyone I know. Is he *as* well *as* usual?

(*b*) **As** follows **so** (adv.) when inequality is asserted, or when an infinitive follows **as**; thus—

He is not *so* well *as* usual. Will you be *so* kind *as* to answer my question?

(*c*) **Nor** is the proper correlative of **neither** (adj. or adv.), and also of the negatives *not* and *never* when they apply to what follows as well as to what precedes the correlative.

Examples: He could *neither* read *nor* write. He will *not* work *nor* permit others to do so. The negative *not* is sometimes implied in *nothing* ('no thing' or 'not any thing'), which is then followed by nor; as, "It was nothing more nor less than an attempt to coerce."

(*d*) **Or** is the correlative of *either* (adj. or adv.) [See paragraph 114.]

(*e*) **Than** is the proper conjunction after **else, other, otherwise,** or any comparative word except *preferable.*

Examples: It was nothing *else than* a boycott. This is none *other than* the house of God. It could hardly be *otherwise than* pleasant.

Correct the following: [Two are correct.]

1. Neither John or his brother could go. 2. He will not study or obey. 3. One should not eat or drink while talking. 4. We have neither time or money to spare. 5. She will never sing or play again. 6. He is not as rich as he makes believe. 7. I am as tall as he but not as heavy. 8. Who is so competent as he? 9. There are few so well educated as he is. 10. This house is more expensive but not as attractive as the other one. 11. We have no other hope but this. 12. I could not do otherwise than speak well of him. 13. I think this is more preferable than that.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS.

265. 1. Using **and** in the place of *to* before an infinitive; as, "Please come and see us soon." "I will try and go." Say 'Please come to see us soon.' 'I will try to go.'

2. Using **as** or **if** for *that* or *whether* to introduce objective clauses; as, "Do you know if he will come?" Say 'whether he will come.' "I do not see as he has changed much." Say 'that he has changed much.'

3. Using **but that, but what,** or **lest** for *that,* after verbs expressing doubt, fear, or denial; as, "I do not doubt but that it is true." Omit *but.* "I never doubted but what he was innocent." Use *that* instead of *but what.* "I fear lest they will not come." Say 'that they will not come.'

But is sometimes incorrectly used for *if;* as, "I should not wonder *but* that is true." Say 'if that is true.'

4. **Directly.**—This adverb should not be used as a conjunction to take the place of *when* or *as soon as,* thus: "Directly we came he went." "Directly we got aboard, the boat started." Say 'when,' or 'as soon as.' This awkward use of *directly* is a Briticism. Avoid it.

5. **How** or **how as** for *that;* as, "He said how he would come if he could." "I thought as how you might be willing to extend the time." Say 'that he would come;' 'that you might be willing'—etc.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Two are correct.*]

266. 1. Do you know if they still sell those goods? 2. He would like to know if you will go with them. 3. He asked me if I would call and see you. 4. Do you know if it will cost as much as the other? 5. The judge asked the

prisoner if he was guilty or not guilty. 6. I do not know as that will help matters any. 7. We cannot see as that alters the case. 8. We cannot say as he is any worse than he was. 9. We did not doubt but what they will succeed. 10. We fear lest she will not get well. 11. We do not deny but that you have grounds for suspicion. 12. He does not doubt but what you did your best. 13. I should not be surprised if that was the case. 14. We will try and do the work for you. 15. Directly I got home I wrote to him. 16. He will not go without you do. 16. I beg leave to differ from you on that point.

GENERAL EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

[*Three are correct.*]

267. 1. The measure failed in consequence of the President vetoing it. 2. This is Campbell's, the poet's, production. 3. Mans happiness or misery are in a great measure put in his own hands. 4. The prince as well as the people were to blame. 5. The fleet were seen sailing up the bay. 6. The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure as its chief good. 7. Their love, their hatred, and their envy has now perished. 8. The committee was divided in its sentiments. 9. That noble general who had gained so many victories, he died at last in prison. 10. They supposed it was me; but you knew that it was him. 11. Who did they send on that mission? 12. Learn to always be content with what you have. 13. It done no harm, for I had wrote my letter before he come. 14. Between you and I, I am afraid he will never pay it. 15. We cannot find none in the market. 16. The sun had already arose when we resumed our journey. 17. He writes as the best authors would have wrote had they writ on the same subject. 18. It is I which begs you to desist. 19. He behaved bad and now he feels badly about it. 20. I saw one who I took to be she. [See 221 *b*.] 21. He can sing better than me. 22. Such was the career of Burns, he who delighted a nation with his songs. 23. The Chinese wall is thirty foot high. 24. I think you had better have your horse shod. 25. I intended to have called last week but could not. 26. The fields look freshly and gayly since the rain. 27. He is a better painter than poet. 28. The side *A*, together with the sides *B* and *C*, compose the triangle. 29. Five and eight makes thirteen; five from eight leaves three. 30. He would not believe that honesty was the best policy. 31. Such a bad temper is a great detriment to a person. 32. I guarantee to sell a better hat than any dealer in this city for less money. 33. This is the most perfect piece of work I ever seen. 34. Tom is more active but not so studious as his brother. 35. I doubt if that statement can be depended upon. 36. Every one must take care of themselves. 37. This is quite different than that. 38. I differ with you in that matter. 39. Your choice of any chair in this window for $3.75. 40. I found him better than I expected to. 41. His report of the affair was quite different to that. 42. Neither despise the poor or envy the rich. 43. I had rather die of the sword than with cholera. 44. He accused them for betraying their trust. 45. I expected my father and brother to have come.

SUPERFLUOUS WORDS.

268. 1. **At.**—Superfluous in "Where is he *at?*" "Where do they live *at?*"

2. **After.**—Superfluous before *having*; as, "After having seen him, we returned." "After having heard that, he was unwilling to go." Say 'Having seen,' 'Having heard,' etc.

3. **Any.**—Superfluous in such expressions as, "I am not hurt *any*." "He is not *any* afraid." "She cannot see *any*."

4. **At all.**—"We are not *at all* surprised at the outcome." "I will have nothing to do with it *at all*." In these sentences, "at all" is superfluous, though it has the sanction of good usage.

5. **Anxiety of mind.**—"Anxiety of mind is undermining his health." Since *anxiety* has reference to a state of the mind, the words "of mind" in this sentence are superfluous. For the same reason, these words are superfluous in "equanimity of mind," since *equanimity* means 'balance of mind.'

6. **Both alike.**—"They are *both alike* in that respect." Omit "both." (383.)

7. **Back.**—Superfluous in such expressions as, "They retreated *back*." "They returned *back*."

8. **Bouts,** or **Abouts.**—"Where bouts [or whereabouts] do you now live?" Say 'Where do you live?'

9. **Clear.**—Superfluous in "He went *clear* to New York," "I read the book *clear* through," and similar expressions.

10. **Down.**—Superfluous in "It dropped *down*." "He fell *down*."

11. **Equally as well as.**—The correlatives, *as—as*, indicate equality, therefore *equally*, in such expressions as, "This is equally as good as that," "This will do equally as well as that," is superfluous.

12. **Full.**—This word is superfluous after *fill;* as, "It was filled full of things." "They filled the cistern full of water." Say 'filled with things,' etc.

13. **For.**—"He is worth more than you think *for*." Drop the "for."

14. **From.**—Superfluous before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence;* as, "From whence does it come." "We shall go from hence as soon as possible." We would consider it absurd to ask, "*To* whither does it go?" yet that would be no worse than, "*From* whence does it come?"

15. **Forward.**—Superfluous in "They advanced *forward*," since the idea of "forward" is embodied in *advance*. This is like saying, "They retreated back."

16. **Go and fetch.**—The first two words are superfluous. [See 271[16].]

17. **Got.**—Superfluous after *have, has,* and *had.* [See paragraph 273[5].]

18. **In.**—Superfluous in the expression "*In* so far as," as "*In* so far as he is responsible he will make it right," "*In* so far as we are concerned,"—etc.

19. **Of.**—Superfluous after *admit, accept, recollect,* and *remember;* as, "The case was too plain to admit of doubt." [See 262[2].]

20. **On.**—Superfluous in "continue *on*." *Continue* includes the idea of *on.*

21. **Pocket handkerchief.**—The word *pocket* is superfluous, just as *hand* is in *neck-handkerchief.* The latter should be *neck-kerchief.*

22. **Right.**—Superfluous in "*Right* there it is," "Please attend to it *right* now," and similar expressions.

23. **Same.**—Superfluous in "He is the *same* man I saw yesterday," "That is the *same* horse I used to own," and similar sentences.

24. **Together,** after *talk, converse, correspond, connect, unite,* and similar words, *together* is superfluous; as, "We talked together over the matter."

25. **Whole.**—Superfluous after *throughout;* as, "Throughout the whole world there is great interest in the matter." "Throughout his whole life he was consistent in that respect."

26. **Widow woman.**—*Widow* means a woman who has lost her husband and has not married again. This meaning of the word has remained unchanged for thousands of years and it is understood by people in general as referring to a woman. Hence, the word *woman* after it is superfluous. (384.)

POPULAR ABSURDITIES.

269. 1. **After night.**—We hear persons talk of doing work "after night." *After night* means sometime the next day.

2. **A. M.,** *in the morning.*—A. M. is an abbreviation of *ante meridian,* which means 'before noon' or 'in the morning.' Hence, it is an absurd superfluity to say, "The train departs at 7 A. M. in the morning." Say 'at 7 o'clock in the morning,' or 'at 7 A. M.' **P. M.** (*post meridian*—'afternoon') and *evening* are also incorrectly used together; as, "He came at 6 P. M. this evening."

3. **Bad orthography.**—"Her orthography is very bad." *Orthography* means 'correct spelling;' therefore, "bad orthography" is *bad correct spelling!*

4. **Been.**—"Has the postman been yet?" Such questions are absurd, for the reason that *been* (the perfect participle of *be*) means 'existed.' Of course the postman has *been* ever since he was born. What is meant is "Has the postman been *here?*" "Had the painters been *there?*" and so forth.

5. **Between each.**—"Between each of the houses was a row of shade-trees." *Each* means *one.* The absurdity is easily seen.

6. **Collect a bill.**—How can one thing be *collected?* The money or the amount due on a bill may be collected, but not the *bill.*

7. **Considerable of a.**—The use of the phrase *considerable of a* to limit a noun is absurd; as, "They paid considerable of a sum for it." "We had considerable of a shower." Say "a considerable sum," "a considerable shower."

8. **Dead run.**—"He started on a dead run." "They came around the corner on a dead run." How does a *dead* run differ from a *live* run? The fact is that what is so often called a "dead run" is far from being *dead.*

9. **Empties.**—Our geographies have long been telling us that "the Mississippi *empties* into the Gulf of Mexico;" that "the Amazon *empties* into the Atlantic," and that the Niagara *empties* into Lake Ontario." Nevertheless the "father of waters" has proved (to the sorrow of many) in recent years that it isn't *empty;* while the waters of the mighty Amazon continue to *flow* into the ocean, and the never-ceasing torrents of far-famed Niagara are pouring into the "Lake of the Thousand Isles."

10. **Every once in a little while.**—This is an absurd and meaningless phrase, made so by the misplacing of the word *every.* It should be "Once in every little while," though the latter is not free from criticism. Better simply, "Once in a little while."

11. **Good music in attendance.**—A common but absurd statement. What is meant is that 'good music will be furnished,' or 'provided.'

12. **Head over heels.**—"He is always head over heels in work." The proper position for a person at work is with his head over his heels.

13. **"How do you do?"**—This question (too often a thoughtless salutation) is not asked for the purpose of finding out *how* the person addressed *does* something, as the words really imply ('you do do how'), but *how* he *is,* that is, in what condition as regards health, etc. The question should be "How *are* you?"

14. **I dare say.**—"I dare say you had a pleasant time." It does not require much courage to *dare* to say such things.

15. **I never remember.**—"I never remember such a mild winter as this." Similar to this, but much more common, are the expressions "I don't think," "I don't guess," etc., which mean just the opposite of what those who use them intend to say.

16. **In our midst.**—The common expression "in our midst" is an absurd one, for the reason that *midst* means nearly, if not exactly, the same as *middle.* "We have in our midst," etc., should be, "We have among us," or "with us," etc. [See John xix: 18.]

17. **Innumerable number.**—The absurdity of such an expression is so apparent that it does not need comment.

18. **I thought to myself.**—Since a man must think *to himself*, if he thinks at all, the "to myself" is absurdly superfluous.

19. **It should seem.**—Strictly, according to the words, this expression means "it ought to seem but does not;" but this is not what those who use it mean. It is a modest but illogical way of saying simply *it seems.* (385.)

20. **Is being done, Is being built, etc.** — *Is* means 'exists;' *being* means 'existing;' *done* means 'finished.' Hence, *is being done* is, literally taken, 'exists existing finished.' And so, *is being built* means 'exists existing built.' Considering the words in the light of their essential—their unchangeable meaning, these phrases are about as absurd as any that could be imagined; but they are generally understood as meaning that the work spoken of is not finished, but progressing. In the words of Mr. Ramsey, "Anyone who will invent a better phrase will deserve public gratitude." (386.)

21. **No more than he can help.**—"He does no more than he can help," or "He does no more than he can keep from doing." Say 'He does no more than he is obliged to do,' or 'compelled to do.'

22. **Of all others.**—"Of all others, that man ought to be the last to complain," "This habit is, of all others, the hardest to break up." How can a thing be one *of all others*?

23. **On every hand.**—Say 'on *each* hand,' '*both* hands,' or 'on *every* side.'

24. **On the street.**—This expression is very commonly misused for *in the street*, the latter being the correct, the logical phrase; thus, Crowds are *in* the street, not *on* the street. An accident occurs *in* (not *on*) the street. (387.)

25. **Powerful weak.**—"He was powerful weak after his long sickness." The man of whom this was said must have been a "confirmed invalid." (272³.)

26. **Quite a few, Quite a little.**—Whether used in its primary sense of completely,' 'entirely,' 'totally,' etc., or in its American sense of 'to a considerable extent or degree,' the word *quite* before *a few*, *a little*, and so forth, is absurd. "We have quite a few of them." "It is quite a little distance from here."

27. **Seldom or ever,** (or **never.**)—This meaningless phrase should be "seldom *if* ever;" as, "He seldom, if ever, fails to be on time."

28. **Table board.**—There are few words in our language so absolutely synonymous as *board* and *table*, the one being the English, the other the Romance name for the same thing; so that table board is simply table-table or

board-board. If not incorrect, it is a very droll combination of words, for "board" thus means that which is placed upon a board or table. Board is one thing, lodging another; so that we see signs "board and lodging."—*Every-Day English.*

29. **The exception proves the rule.**—How can an exception *prove* a rule? Probably not one in a thousand of those who use this expression understands its meaning, or stops to think whether it really means anything. The exception proves nothing, unless it may be said to prove itself. (388.)

30. **Too much.**—"It is not best to eat too much before going to bed." Of course it is not best to eat "too much" at any time. "Too much dissipation, it is said, was the cause of his death." Any *dissipation* is "too much."

"AWFUL" WORDS.

270. 1. **Dreadful.**—To speak of having a "*dreadful* (or dreadfully) nice time," is on a level with saying "an *awful* nice day." [See *Awful*, p. 133.]

2. **Grand.**—This word is absurdly used in such expressions as, "He made a *grand* mistake." "It was a *grand* failure."

3. **Horrid, Horrible.**—These two words seem to be favorites with those who are predisposed to make "mountains out of mole hills" in their use of English; and so we hear them talk about "*horrid* (or horrible) weather;" "a *horrible* toothache," and so forth. [See 389.]

4. **Immense.**—This word seems to be a favorite extravagance with Americans. It is not uncommon to see on signs, or to read in advertisements announcing "special sales," such statements as "Immense reductions in shoes." "Immense discounts on all our goods." Persons who use *immense* in this way certainly do not understand its meaning. They might as well say, "*prodigious* reductions;" "*unlimited* discounts."

5. **Mighty.**—"I am mighty glad to see you." Any one who will stop to consider the meaning of *mighty* will see the absurdity of such an expression.

6. **Splendid.**—This word means 'possessing or displaying splendor,' 'shining,' 'being brilliant,' or 'very bright.' Hence, it is proper to speak of a 'splendid sunset,' a 'splendid diamond,' a 'splendid palace,' but it is gross extravagance to speak of a 'splendid cup of coffee,' a 'splendid sermon,' a 'splendid man,' or to say of a woman that 'she sang splendidly,' or that anything is done 'splendidly.' Many persons go to the extent of speaking of such things as being "perfectly splendid."

7. **Terrible.**—"I am in a *terrible* hurry." If you are in the habit of using the word "terrible" in this way, look up its meaning in a good dictionary, and then rid yourself of the habit. Avoid all such expressions.

MISUSED WORDS.

271. 1. **Address, Direct.**—*Address* is commonly misused for ***direct.*** A letter is addressed, at the beginning, to the one who is to read it, but directed (outside) to the one who is to receive it. Hence, packages are always ***directed,*** not *addressed.* [See paragraph 390.]

2. **Aggravate** for *irritate.*—*Aggravate* means 'to add to,' 'to make heavy, or heavier.' It should not be used for *irritate*, which means 'to anger,' 'vex,' 'provoke,' 'exasperate,' etc. Examples: Injury is aggravated by the addition of insult. He irritates me by his impudence.

3. **Among, Between.**—*Between* ordinarily applies to two; *among* to a greater number; as, "The farmer divided his property between two sons; his money, among three daughters." [See *Divide*, 326.]

4. **Answer, Reply.**—We *answer* questions and *reply* to charges or assertions In answering letters for the purpose of giving information, do not say, "In reply to your letter," etc.

5. **Apt, Liable, Likely.**—*Apt* means 'quick,' 'inclined,' or 'disposed to do;' hence applicable to persons only; as, "A pupil apt to learn." "Men are apt to slander others."

Liable means 'responsible,' 'exposed to,' or 'in danger of.' It is applicable to both persons and things; as, "They are liable for the cost of the goods." "Tall trees are liable to be struck by lightning." "He is liable to get hurt."

Likely means having 'probability,' 'giving reason to expect;' as, "He is likely to come again." "It is not likely to occur soon." "I am not likely to go."

These three words are very commonly misused. The errors occur chiefly in the use of *apt* for liable or likely. *Liable* is also misused for likely, but *likely* is seldom misused in the place of either of the others.

6. **At length, At last.**—When reference is made to time, *at last* should be used; as, "At last we came to our journey's end." *At length* means 'in full' or 'to a considerable extent;' as, "He wrote to me at length about the affair."

7. **Avocation** for *vocation.*—A man's vocation is his business or calling; that in which he is regularly engaged. His *avocations* are the things which call him away from his regular work: *vocare*, to call; *a-vocare*, to call away. Thus a lawyer's vocation, properly speaking, is the practice of law. When he leaves his business and goes a-fishing, the latter is, for the time, his *avocation.*

8. **A while** and **Awhile.**—*While* was originally regarded as a noun preceded by the article *a.* When used to limit a verb, the two are now written together and regarded as a pure adverb. But when they follow a preposition they are written separately, *while* then being a noun. Examples: This will do for a while. He will go in a little while.

9. **Awful** for *very* or *exceedingly.*—*Awful* means 'frightful,' and is applicable to that which strikes with awe or fills with reverence mingled with fear or admiration. Neither it nor the adverb *awfully* should be applied to common or ordinary happenings. Thus we speak of an awful explosion, an awful shipwreck, or an awful disaster of any kind; but we should not say 'an awful boy,' 'an awful mistake,' 'an awful nice time,' 'an awfully nice fellow,' and so forth.

10. **Balance** for *remainder* or *rest.*—*Balance* as a noun means that which makes equal, hence it is correct to speak of the balance of a man's account, meaning the amount required to make the two sides of his account equal. [See Webster.] *Balance* is incorrectly used for *remainder* or *rest* in such expressions as 'the balance of the day;' 'the balance of the crowd;' 'the balance of the crop;' 'the balance of the man's money.'

11. **Beat.**—This word is commonly misused for *defeat;* as, "He beat the other fellow on election day." "The man they proposed for candidate was beaten in the primaries." *Beat* is also misused for *excelled* or *surpassed* in such statements as, "She beat all her classmates in mathematics." "He beat all the others in logical argument."

12. **Beside, Besides.**—*Beside* means place; as, "He stood beside me." *Besides* means 'in addition to;' as, "There were two others there besides him."

13. **Both** is misused for *each;* as, "An ancient oak stood on both sides of the road." [See *Either.*]

14. **Bound.**—The use of this word as an adjective in the sense of *sure, certain,* or *determined,* is incorrect; as, "He is bound (sure, certain,) to be defeated." "I am bound (determined) to go."

15. **Bountiful.**—This word applies to persons, not to things. Thus, we may say of one who bestows great benefits or gives large gifts that 'he is a *bountiful* person,' and so one stanza of a well-known Sunday School song begins: "Up to the bountiful Giver of life," etc. We should not pervert this word and make it do duty for *plentiful, large, abundant,* etc., in such expressions as 'a bountiful dinner,' 'a bountiful crop,' 'a bountiful supply.'

16. **Bring, Fetch.**—*Bring* implies motion in one direction; *fetch* indicates motion in two directions. Thus, the farmer calls to his son and says, "Bring me the rake you are using." If he sends the boy for the rake he says, "Go and bring me the rake." In the latter case he might say "Fetch me the rake," since *fetch* implies both going and bringing. Hence it is superfluous to say "Go and fetch me the rake."

17. **Can, May.**—*May* asks or grants permission; *can* has reference to ability. The common error is not in using *may* for *can,* but in using *can* to ask or grant permission where *may* should be used; as, "Can I borrow your book?" "Can I have the pleasure of your company?"

272. 1. **Can not** and **Cannot.**—When absolute inability (from any cause) is asserted, *cannot* should be used. When mere *unwillingness* is meant (the *ability* to do not being denied), use the two words *can not.* Examples: I cannot hear as well as I did then. We can not sell you these goods at the price we did last year. I can not tell a lie.

2. **Calculate** for *intend* or *expect.*—*Calculate* means to compute or reckon; as, to calculate the cost of a farm at so much per acre; or, to calculate the distance in miles between two places, the difference of longitude or latitude being given. The word is incorrectly used in such sentences as the following: "They calculate to go to the World's Fair." "He calculates to get married." Say 'intend' or 'expect.' *Calculated* is also commonly used to take the place of *likely* or *liable;* as, "Such mistakes are calculated to do much harm." "The storm is calculated to interfere with travel and traffic." We may, however, say, 'That man's meanness is calculated to do much harm,' or that 'the strike was calculated to interfere with travel and traffic;' for the man may have planned, reckoned, *calculated* upon doing harm; and the strikers doubtless planned the strike and reckoned ('calculated') upon its having just such an effect.

3. **Confirmed** for *chronic* or *hopeless.*—*Confirm* means 'to make firm,' 'to give strength to,' but we sometimes hear of a confirmed invalid. Can weakness be strong? If not, how can a man be a confirmed ('strengthened') invalid?

4. **Consequence.**—As it is used in the familiar phrase, "it is of no consequence," this word might be classed with "popular absurdities." *Consequence* means 'that which follows—a *result;* hence, "it is of no consequence" is equivalent to '*it is of no result.*' What those who use this expression mean is that the matter is of no *importance.*

5. **Consider.**—*Consider* means 'to ponder,' 'to think over,' 'to weigh carefully, with a view to forming an opinion or giving an answer.' It is incorrectly used for *think* or *regard* in such sentences as, "I consider him an honest man." "We do not consider that it is our place to do this."

6. **Couple of** for *two.*—The words *couple of* are incorrectly used for *two* in such expressions as 'a couple of men,' 'a couple of letters,' 'a couple of stamps.' Two things that are *coupled,* or bound together by some 'copula,' are a couple; as, 'a couple or yoke of oxen,' 'a couple of cars' (two cars coupled together); and so a man and his wife are a couple united by the marriage bond. (391.)

7. **Dangerous** is incorrectly used for the phrase *in danger* in the following sentence: "His death was a surprise to all, for he was not thought to be dangerous."

8. **Depot** for *station.*—*Station* means a stopping or a standing place; *depot* means a place for storing materials; hence, instead of "railroad depot," we should say "railroad station," or, better still, "*railway* station." (392.)

9. **Drive** for *ride*.—The misuse of *drive* for *ride* is very common in this country, as well as in England, where it originated. Even well educated persons will say, "Let us take a drive in the surrey," or, "We went to drive in the country," when they mean "ride." The coachman or driver *drives*.

10. **Every thing** and **Everything**.—*Every thing* means *each* thing; *everything* means *all* taken together; as, "He gave the highest market price for every thing he bought." "They sold everything they had for a few dollars."

11. **Every** in such sentences as, "We have every confidence in the man," is misused for *entire*, or *perfect*.

12. **Either, Neither,** and **Both**.—Each of these words applies to but two objects, yet they are commonly misused by being applied to three or a greater number; as, "*Either* (or *neither*) of the four boys could have done the work alone." *Either* means one *or* the other (of two); *both* means one *and* the other. *Neither* means '*not either*'—*not* one nor *the other*, of two. (393.)

13. **Etc., &c.**—According to the Century Dictionary, *etc.* and *&c.* are both abbreviations of the Latin phrase *et cetera*, meaning 'and the rest.' The sign *&c.* is commonly read "and so forth"; it should, therefore, be used only when the meaning is "and others like them." *Etc.* should always be read "ĕt-sĕt′ĕ-rā," and used when the meaning is "and the rest" or "and other things not mentioned." The use of "etc., etc.," or "&c., &c., &c.," is absurd.

14. **Evidence, Testimony**.—Concerning the distinction between these words, Mathews says: "*Evidence* is a word much abused by learned judges and attorneys,—being continually used for *testimony*. *Evidence* relates to the convictive view of any one's mind; *testimony*, to the knowledge of another concerning some fact. The evidence in a case is often the reverse of the testimony."

15. **Example, Problem**.—An *example* is that which is to be followed, or imitated as a model,—that which serves to illustrate. A *problem* is a question proposed for solution, that which is to be worked out according to some rule. An example is a problem that has been solved and the solution written out to illustrate or make the rule clear.

16. **Execute**.—The common tendency in the use of words is to make them general in meaning instead of specific—making them mean so much that they mean nothing; but as great an error is made when a general term is used with a specific meaning. The word *execute* in one of its common (though incorrect) uses is an illustration of this. Its true meaning is 'to follow to the end,' 'to carry into complete effect,' 'to finish;' as to execute an order, to execute the laws, to execute a piece of work. Hence, to speak of executing a man is an absurd use of the word. Besides, to say that a man "was executed" is indefinite, though it is generally understood that he was put to death by hanging. If a man is to be hanged, or shot, or killed by electricity, say so. It may not sound so elegant as "executed," but the meaning will be definite.

273. 1. **Expect** for *suppose, think, believe.—Expect* means 'to wait,' 'to look for,' 'look forward to,' and, hence, can be applied only to things in the future, to that which is yet to happen; as, "I expect to get a letter tomorrow." "They will expect us to come." It is incorrectly used in such expressions as, "I expect you had a pleasant time." "I expect she is sick."

2. **Farther, Further.**—Comparatively few people observe the distinction between these words. *Farther* has reference to distance or extent; as, "He could go no farther." "He went farther into the matter than I should have gone." *Further* means 'more;' as, "I have nothing further to say about it."

3. **Fix** for *repair* and *draw.*—The word *fix*, which primarily meant 'to make firm,' 'to set,' 'to establish,' has been degraded or weakened by being made to do the work of *mend, repair*, and even of *draw;* as, "The lawyer will fix up the papers." "They fixed the broken machinery." "What will you charge for fixing my shoes?"

4. **Foot** for *pay.*—To *foot* a bill or account is to add or to sum up the columns of figures, to place the amount at the foot or bottom. Hence, when a man says he will 'foot the bill,' he literally promises nothing more than that he will add the figures and ascertain the amount of the bill. If people had to do nothing more than "foot" their bills it would be an easy way of paying for goods. The fact is that the merchant or book-keeper will *foot* our bills and expect us to *pay* them.

5. **Get.**—The primary and essential meaning of this word is 'to obtain by effort,' *i. e.*, to come into possession of a thing by some act or effort on the part of the possessor. Thus a man may get a new hat, get a wife, get a home, and he may, by carelessness, get a cold, and in speaking of these things afterward he may say he *got* such and such a thing. *Get* has also a variety of uses in idiomatic expressions where it signifies 'to become,' 'to leave,' 'to reach,' etc.; as, to get tired, get lost, get away, get to bed, get to sleep.

The word should not be used to denote possession or the getting of that which a person makes no effort to obtain; as, to say of a man that he 'got a present,' 'got a letter,' 'got left,' 'got arrested,' or that he 'got killed.' What is meant, and what we should say in such cases, is that the person received a letter or present, that he was arrested, was left, was killed, and so forth. Another and more common error is the use of *got* after *have* to denote mere possession. Thus, "I have got a watch," "He has got fever," "They had got my telegram."

6. **Grow.**—Next to *get*, this is probably our most variously used verb. Grow means to 'increase,' 'enlarge,' 'develop.' It is allowable in such idiomatic expressions as 'grow bright,' 'grow dark,' 'grow weary,' where it is used in the sense of *become;* but its use in such sentences as, "His desire for it grew less and less," My fortune grows smaller," "The days are growing shorter," is illogical, not to say absurd.

7. **Guess** for *think, believe, suppose.*—Americans are the greatest "guessers" in the world. They "guess" this, "guess" that, and "guess" the other thing, when they really do not *guess*, but *think*, *suppose*, or *believe.*

8. **Hardly** for *scarcely.*—*Hardly* has reference to degree, *scarcely* to quantity; as, "They have scarcely enough for their own use." "He is hardly able to walk yet." The words are incorrectly used in the following: "He is scarcely old enough to understand it." "There was hardly anything said."

9. **Healthy, Healthful, Wholesome.**—We may speak of a *healthy* or *unhealthy* person or animal and of a *healthful* climate. *Wholesome* (or unwholesome) is applicable to food, water, air, etc.

10. **Heap** for *very* or *a great deal.*—"He thinks a heap of her." "He can do a heap of work in a day." We may have a heap (pile) of logs, a heap of dirt, or a heap of stones; but not 'a *heap* of work' or 'a *heap* of love.'

11. **Help** is commonly misused for *avoid* or *keep from;* as, "I could not help laughing at him." "He could not help doing that."

12. **Ill** for *sick.*—*Ill* is an adverb and should not be used as an adjective; as, "I am ill." "She was quite ill." Use "sick" in all such cases. (394.)

13. **Lady** for *wife.*—The word *lady*, as a substitute for *wife*, is a snobbish vulgarism, which may have originated with a clerk in a hotel. Mr. and Mrs. Somebody arrived at the hotel, and the clerk officiously recorded their names,—"Mr. Somebody and Lady."—*Gould's "Good English."*

14. **Learn, Teach.**—*Learn* means to acquire (get) knowledge; *teach* means to impart knowledge. Hence it is incorrect to say, "He learned me to write." "I will learn you better manners."

15. **Less, Fewer.**—*Less* relates to quantity; *fewer* to number. [See *Quantity.*] "I have less money than he has, but he has fewer friends than I have."

16. **Likewise, Also.**—*Likewise*, which means 'in like manner,' is misused for *also.* "*Also* classes together things or qualities, whilst *likewise* couples actions or states of being."—*Mathews.* (395.)

17. **Love** and **Like.**—These words should not be used indiscriminately. *Love* is much the stronger term and should not be applied except to those objects for which a person may have affection, or to which he may be devoted. We may *like* peaches, flowers, to hear someone sing, and so forth, but we should not speak of *loving* such things.

18. **Majority.**—This word is not applicable to anything but persons. It is erroneously used in such expressions as, "a majority of the time;" "a majority of the money." Say 'the greater part,' or 'more than half.'

19. **Mind.**—This word is, by many, incorrectly used for *remember;* as, "Do you mind that time?"

274. 1. **Mistaken.**—The principal parts of *mistake* (mis-take, *i. e.*, 'to take amiss') are *mistake, mistook, mistaken.* The verb is correctly used in "He mistook me for another person." "Smith was mistaken for another man having the same name." "Your statement was mistaken ('misunderstood') by the class." This is the true meaning of *mistaken;* but nothing is more common than to hear persons say, "I am *mistaken*" or "was *mistaken* about it," "You are *mistaken* about that matter," and so forth, by which they mean, not that the person has been 'taken amiss' or that his words are misunderstood, but that he is (or was) *incorrect*, or *in error.* [See 262[4].]

2. **Nice.**—To say the least, this word is very much overworked, and its indiscriminate use for 'fine,' 'pleasant,' 'good,' etc., should be avoided. (396.)

3. **Own.**—This word means primarily 'to possess,' and there is no excuse for its use in the sense of *admit*, or *confess;* as, "I own he has good grounds for complaint." (397.)

4. **Party** for *person, man*, or *woman.*—A *party* is a number of persons united or gathered for some purpose. The term is also applied to one person who takes a part with others in anything. Hence we talk of a man's being party to a crime (*particeps criminis*) or of his being one of the parties to a contract. But to speak of "the *party* who called upon me yesterday" is an incorrect use of the word,—a use quite unnecessary.

5. **Partially** for *partly.*—"Partially," the adverb of *partial*, means an unjust or unreasonable bias. When anything is done in part it is partly (not *partially*) done.

6. **Patrons** for *customers.* **Patronage** for *trade.*—*Patron* means one who supports, favors, protects, or gives aid to another who is dependent upon him. The misuse of this word for *customers* is quite common in this country, as is also the use of *patronage* for *trade.*

Patronage means "special countenance, favor, or aid afforded to second the views of a person or to promote a design." The commercial use of the word so common in this country is mere cant and should be discarded. Such expressions as, "The favor of your patronage is solicited," "Thanking you for the favor of your patronage," etc., are absurd. "The favor of your patronage" is equivalent to "the favor of your favor."

7. **Particle.**—This word, which means the smallest possible part of a material substance, is incorrectly applied to things that are not material, hence not divisible into parts; as, "I did not get a particle of rest last night." "They did not derive a particle of benefit from it." *Any* may be substituted for "particle" in these sentences. *Bit* may also be used to take its place, though it is open to the same criticism as 'particle.'

8. **Pell-mell.**—This word or expression implies a crowd and should never be applied to one person; as, "He rushed out of the house *pell-mell.*" (398.)

9. **Plenty.**—The misuse of this noun for the adjective "plentiful" has been pointed out. (Page 110.) *Plenty* means a sufficient supply of anything but it does not refer to numbers. It is correctly used in, "There is plenty of room for all." "There is plenty of food," etc.; but incorrectly used in such sentences as, "Plenty of the crowd were willing to undertake it." "Plenty of us were present to transact the business." This use of the word is just as absurd as to say, as some people do, that "an abundance of us were present," or that "an abundance of the crowd were willing"—etc.

10. **Portion** for *part.*—"A portion is a part set aside for a special purpose, or to be considered by itself."—*White.* Hence it is incorrect to say "A large portion of the city was destroyed by fire;" "He was absent a portion of the time." *Portion* is correctly used in the speech of the prodigal son [Luke xv, 12]: "Father, give me the portion of goods that falleth to me."

11. **Post** for *inform.*—"You should post yourself on that point." "We will keep you posted in regard to the matter." Say 'inform' or 'informed.'

12. **Present** for *introduce.*—The use of *present* for *introduce* in the sense of 'make acquainted' (as to introduce a friend) is a French affectation that should be avoided by all lovers of pure English. (399.)

13. **Quantity, Number.**—*Quantity* has reference to that which may be weighed or measured; *number* has reference to that which is counted.

14. **Raise.**—This word is sometimes incorrectly used for *increase* in such sentences as, "Our landlord has raised the rent." "I shall be obliged to raise your rent." (400.) *Lower* is similarly misused; as, "They lowered his wages."

15. **Recommend.**—"The committee *recommends* that a special meeting shall be called." Say 'advises,' 'suggests,' or 'requests.'

16. **Recollect, Remember.**—These words are not synonymous, though they are generally used as though they were. We may be able to *recollect* (re-collect) what we have forgotten, that is, what we do not at the moment *remember.* Hence, "I cannot remember," or "I am not able to remember," are incorrect; and so is "I recollect very well when it happened." (401.)

17. **Reputable** for *respectable.*—A man's reputation is what other people think of him, the estimation in which he is held. That reputation may be either good or bad. [See p. 97.] Hence to say of a man that he is a *reputable* person is rather indefinite. The writer of an article which recently appeared in one of our leading magazines said concerning the proceedings in a certain meeting, "It was a scene calculated to make every reputable citizen of the State hang his head in humiliation." He should have said "every respectable citizen." [See *Calculated.*]

18. **Section.**—This is a good word, but much used, and unnecessarily so, for 'part,' 'region,' 'neighborhood,' 'vicinity.'

275. 1. **Settle.**—"To settle is to fix firmly and so to adjust; and therefore the adjusting of accounts is well called by figure their settlement."—*White.* Nothing is gained but something lost by using *settle* for *pay*, for, in the language of Mr. White, "It displaces one good word and perverts another; while the use of 'settle' without any object, which is sometimes heard, as, 'Hadn't you better settle with me,' is hideous."

2. **Some time** and **sometime.**—In writing of an indefinite time, use *sometime*, but if referring to a length of time, use *some time;* as, "I will tell you sometime." "It will take some time to finish the work."

3. **State** for *say.*—"*State*, from *status*, means to set forth the condition under which a person, or thing, or a cause stands. A bankrupt is called upon to state his condition, to make a statement of his affairs. But if a man merely says a thing, do let us say merely that he says it."—*White.*

4. **Stop** and **stay.**—*Stop* means to halt, to quit going, and should not be used to mean *stay* (remain) at a place for a length of time. A railway train may *stop* at each of the stations along the line but the length of time it *stays* at these stations will probably vary. A man should not speak of 'stopping at a hotel' for two days or two weeks. The 'stop' is instantaneous; the 'stay' may continue indefinitely.

5. **Storm.**—This word, as it is used by most persons, might be classed with "extravagant expressions." *Storm* means a fierce commotion of the elements and should not be applied to gentle rains, slight snow-falls, and so forth.

6. **Take** for *charge.*—*Take* is incorrectly used for *charge* after *how much*, in such expressions as, "How much will you take to teach me to paint?" "How much will you take for this?" *Take* is correctly used in: "What is the least you will take for the horse?" Even here, *accept* is a better word.

Take is further misused for *lead* or *direct* in, "This path will take you to his house." "This road will take you to town."

7. **Talk** for *speak.*—Talk is often misused for speak in such expressions as, "He talks German." "She talks French." Say 'He speaks German,' etc.

8. **Try** for *make.*—In the expression "try the experiment," *try* is incorrectly used for *make.* Say 'make the experiment.'

9. **Turn** for *pour.*—Say 'pour the tea,' 'pour the coffee,' 'pour the water,' not '*turn* the tea,' '*turn* the coffee,' etc.

10. **Veracity** and **Truth.**—*Veracity* (truthfulness) is applicable to persons only; *truth* to things. "A story is or is not true; a man is or is not veracious—if truthful is too plain a word. We may doubt the truth of a story because we doubt the veracity, or, better, the truthfulness, of the teller."—*Words and Their Uses.*

BIG WORDS FOR LITTLE IDEAS.

276. 1. **Abundance.**—This word is applicable to quantity only. It should never be used when numbers are referred to. [See *Quantity* and *Plenty*, p. 139.]

2. **Accord** for *grant.*—To *accord* means properly 'to agree to,' 'to suit;' as, "His views accorded with mine;" but "We will accord them (or to them) all they ask for" is incorrect.

3. **Anticipate.**—This big word is often misused for the simple term *expect*, in such sentences as, "I anticipate going." "Do you anticipate a large crowd tonight?" It is correctly used in the following sentence: "My friend anticipated my wishes and made me a present of a copy of the poems." (402.)

4. **Appreciate** for *rise*, or 'increase in value;' as, "Gold usually appreciates under such circumstances." This is an Americanism that should be avoided by all who wish to talk to be understood.

5. **Caption.**—This word is sometimes misused for *title* or *heading*. (403.)

6. **Carnival.**—The radical and literal meaning of this word is 'farewell to meat.' In Catholic countries it signifies a festival celebrated with merriment and revelry during the week before Lent, but in this country the word has been misused to signify a spree, frolic, or festival of any kind. Mathews, commenting on this word, says: "As we have plenty of legitimate words to describe these festivals, the use of this outlandish term has not a shadow of justification."

7. **Celebrities.**—The use of this word for celebrated persons or persons of celebrity belongs to an inflated, newspaper style too common in this country. In fact, its use has hardly passed beyond reporters' columns, but persons with big-word tendencies would do well to guard against it.

8. **Consummated.**—Persons who speak of weddings and say that the marriage was consummated at such a time or such a place might better confine themselves to plain English and say that the ceremony or wedding 'occurred' or 'took place,' etc.

9. **Contemplate** for *intend* or *expect.*—*Contemplate* means primarily to study, to consider, to meditate upon. Persons who are predisposed to use big words will often say they 'contemplate,' when they mean and might better say, simply, that they *intend* or *expect* to do so and so.

10. **Depreciate** for *lessen* or *decrease.*—This word may properly be used in the sense of 'underrate' or 'to represent as of little value,' but its use in the sense of 'lessen' or 'decrease' is as unnecessary and inexcusable as *appreciate* for 'rise' or 'increase.'

277. 11. **Disremember.**—This is certainly a poor substitute for 'forget' or 'do not remember.'

12. **Extend** for *give* or *send.*—Persons who wished to appear elegant in their language began to say "extend invitation," "extend congratulations;" and now nearly every one uses the word in these connections, supposing it to be a synonym of *give* or *send.* But such a use of the word is unwarranted. *Extend* means 'to stretch forth,' 'to prolong,' 'to enlarge;' hence it is correct to speak of extending the time of a bill or note, or of extending one's hand, or to say of a queen that 'her object is to extend her domains.' (2.)

13. **Gubernatorial.**—Richard Grant White, in "Words and their Uses," classes this among the 'words that are not words' and comments upon it as follows: "This clumsy piece of verbal pomposity should be thrust out of use and that speedily. While the chief officers of states are called governors and not gubernators, we may better speak of the governor's house, and of the governor's room than of the 'gubernatorial mansion' and the 'gubernatorial chamber;' and why that which relates to government should be called 'gubernatorial' rather than governmental, except for the sake of being at once pedantic, uncouth, and outlandish, it would be hard to tell."

14. **Inaugurate** for *adopt, begin, open, establish.—Inaugurate* means primarily 'to introduce or induct into an office with suitable ceremonies.' It does not mean *adopt, begin,* etc., except as it has been forced to such a meaning by persons for whom the latter words are too ordinary. We *adopt* measures, methods, etc.; we *begin, open, establish* a business; we *inaugurate* Presidents. (404.)

15. **Initiate.**—"*Initiate* is one of the long, pretentious words that are coming into vogue among those who would be fine. It means *begin;* no more, no less."—*White.* (405.)

16. **Militate** for *oppose, contend,* 'to be at variance with;' as, "The circumstances militate against such a view of the case."

17. **Obnoxious** for *offensive.—Obnoxious* means 'liable' or 'exposed to harm,' and its use (unknown until about the beginning of the present century) in the sense of "offensive" should be avoided.

18. **Observe** for *say.*—The primary meaning of *observe* is to keep carefully, to heed; as, to observe the Sabbath; but the word is sometimes incorrectly used in the sense of *say.* (406.)

19. **Paraphernalia.**—This big word from the Greek is often misused by people who do not understand its literal meaning and who might better say 'ornaments' or 'trappings' instead. (407.)

20. **Partake** for *eat.—Partake* means literally 'to take a part,' and while it has its proper use it is too often misused for the simple word *eat;* as, "He partook of his breakfast in silence."

21. **Perambulate** for *walk* or *stroll.*—Those who have a fondness for big words to express little ideas speak of "perambulating the streets," or "perambulating through the park," when they mean "walking," or "strolling."

22. **Predicate** for *found* or *base.*—*Predicate* as a verb means 'to speak before,' hence, 'to assert,' 'to declare;' but some persons with an affectation to learning have used it in the sense of *base* or *found;* as, "What action shall we predicate upon the statements made by the committee?" (408.)

23. **Proposition** for *offer* or *proposal.*—A *proposal* is something offered to be done. The use of *proposition* to signify 'proposal' or 'offer' is unnecessary, and its use in that sense in commercial affairs doubtless grew out of the tendency to use high-sounding terms where small terms would do just as well. *Proposition* has its other legitimate meanings, to which it should be confined.

24. **Remunerate, Reimburse.**—The primary meaning of *remunerate* is 'to pay,' 'to reward;' that of *reimburse* is 'to pay back,' 'to restore.' Persons who do not know the difference between the two words but insist upon using "big words for little ideas" are liable to get them ridiculously mixed. We remunerate (pay or reward) a man for services rendered, and we may say of a man's business that it is remunerative—one that pays well. A bankrupt's assets may partly reimburse his creditors; or we may reimburse a man for expenses he has incurred in doing business for us; that is, we *pay back* to him the sum he has paid out for us.

25. **Retire.**—*Retire* has a clear meaning and well defined uses, not one of which is in the sense of going to bed. "If you are going to bed, say so, should there be occasion; don't talk about retiring unless you would seem like a prig or prurient prude."—*Words and Their Uses.*

26. **Transpire** for *happen* or *take place.*—Probably no more striking perversion of a word from its true meaning can be found than that of *transpire*, when used in the sense of 'happen,' 'occur,' 'take place.' The real meaning of the word is *become known;* or it may be expressed by the phrase "leak out." Mr. White, in *Words and Their Uses*, gives the following test of the correct use of *transpire:* "If the phrase *take place* can be substituted for it and the intended meaning of the sentence is preserved, its use is unquestionably wrong; if the other colloquial phrase *leak out* [become known] can be put in its place, its use is correct."

27. **Witness** for *see* or *behold*, etc.—The use of *witness* in the sense of "see" is wholly unnecessary and without excuse. *Witness* as a verb has its well established and legitimate use in the sense of attest, or bear testimony from personal knowledge. Hence we speak of witnessing a deed or other writing, of being an eye witness, and of witnessing (testifying) in a case in court; but we should not talk of having 'witnessed' a game of ball, of 'witnessing' (seeing, or beholding,) a sad sight, unless we wish to appear affected.

COUNTERFEIT WORDS.

278. 1. **Anyways.**—The *s* of this word is incorrectly added, as it is in *anywheres*, *everyways*, *noways*, *nowheres*, *everywheres*, *backwards*, *forwards*, *towards*, *upwards*, *downwards*, *afterwards*, *homewards*, &c., all of which should be written without the *s*. (72[3].) Likewise, the *st* in *amidst*, *amongst*, *whilst*, is superfluous. [See 409–10.]

2. **Authoress;** also *doctress*, *editress*, *poetess*, &c. As well might we say *writeress*, *singeress*, *lawyeress*, as *authoress*, etc. A *poet* is one who writes poetry; an *editor*, one who edits—*not* a *man* who edits, but a person who edits. Edward S. Gould ("Good English") says of the words "authoress" and "poetess:' "They are philological absurdities, because they are fabricated on the false assumption that their primaries indicate men." [See 361.]

3. **Agriculturalist.**—This word should be *agriculturist*, just as we speak of a chemist, a geologist, not of a *chemicalist*, a *geologicalist*.

4. **Casuality.**—The proper form is *casualty*.

5. **Conversationalist.**—This word should be *converser* or *conversationist;* but most persons give it the unnecessary and incorrect syllable *al*, just as they do *agriculturist*.

6. **Controversialist.**—This word is a counterfeit of the same stamp as *conversationalist*, being incorrectly formed from the adjective when it should have been formed upon the verb *controvert*. The legitimate form is *controverter* or *controvertist*.

7. **Direful.**—We hear of "direful results," "a direful calamity," and so forth. Adjectives ending in *ful* are formed by suffixing the adjective *full* to nouns. Such adjectives are said to be "self-defining." Their strict meaning is obtained by transposing the parts and placing *of* between them; thus, *beautiful*—'full of beauty;' *merciful*—'full of mercy;' or, in their common meaning, 'possessing beauty,' 'having mercy.' But there is no such noun as *dire*. How then can we have *direful?*—'full of (or possessing) dire!' Of course, *direfully* (adv.) also is spurious. *Dreadful*, *terrible*, and *woeful*, express the idea intended by *direful*.

8. **Donate.**—Webster calls attention to the use of this word as being "of recent origin." It is, to say the least, a poor substitute for *give*, *present*, etc.

9. **Electrocuted.**—*Executed*, in the sense of 'put to death,' 'hanged,' 'beheaded,' 'shot,' is bad; but what shall we say of the absurd *electrocuted* which we are beginning to see in print? It has been erroneously formed on the assumption that the *cute* in *execute* means 'to kill,' which it does not. It is from *sequi*, meaning 'to follow.'

10. **Enthused.**—Some persons talk of being *enthused* over a matter, meaning that they are *aroused*, *stirred*, *excited*, or *inspired*. This word was doubtless obtained, as Mr. White says, "by the backward process of making some kind of verb from the noun *enthusiasm*, as *donate* was formed from *donation*,"—a process of derivation (if such it may be called) that is contrary to the laws of growth and development of language.

11. **Fellowship, Disfellowship,** as verbs.—Example: An attempt to disfellowship an evil but to fellowship the evil doer. Nouns ending with *ship* express a condition or state; as, *guardianship*, *authorship;* and so, *fellowship*, meaning a condition or state of those who are associates or *fellows*, or who fellow with each other (*fellow* being an allowable verb). It would be just as reasonable to say of two queens that they will not *queenship* with each other, or that two senators will not *senatorship* with each other, as to say of two persons that they will not *fellowship* with each other. What is meant is that they will not *associate* with each other.

12. **Firstly.**—Why first*ly* any more than eighth*ly*, tenth*ly*, and so forth? Webster says of *firstly*, "Incorrectly used for *first*."

13. **Gent** and **Pants.**—*Gent* is a vulgar contraction of gentleman. *Pant*, as a verb, means 'to breathe quickly,' 'to gasp;' as a noun, it means 'a catching of the breath,' 'a gasp.' Yet we see such signs as "Pants for sale," "Pants made to order." One who understands the legitimate meaning of the word can hardly refrain from asking "How much a *pant?*" To say the least, these two words are poor substitutes for the genteel *gentleman* and *pantaloons*. (411.)

14. **Hydropathy, Electropathy.**—These are monstrous absurdities gotten up by some one who wanted something more high-sounding than water-cure and electric-cure, which they are supposed to mean but which they do not mean. *Hydro* means 'water'; *pathy* is from a Greek word which means 'suffering' or 'disease'; and so *hydropathy* literally means "water disease" and *electropathy*, correctly rendered, is "electric disease."

15. **Ice-water, Ice-cream.**—It is not uncommon to see in print, or to hear the compound "iced-tea," which is the correct form, meaning tea that has been made cold by the use of ice. We should, for the same reason, say *iced-water*, instead of "ice-water," since we do not really mean water made from ice. Nor does "ice-cream" mean cream made from ice; hence it is properly *iced-cream*. "Strictly *iced-water, iced-cream*."—*Century Dictionary.*

16. **Intercessed.**—Persons who say they have been *intercessed* to do so and so mean that they have been *entreated* or *urged*. There is a noun *intercession*, and a verb *intercede*, which means 'to go between,' but there is no such verb as *intercess* from which the participle *intercessed* may be formed.

17. **Intercessionate.**—'To intercede with.' [Rare.]—*Century Dictionary.* Let us hope that it may continue to be "rare."

279. 1. **Jeopardize.**—This word is improperly used for the verb *jeopard*, the suffix *ize* being incorrectly added. A similar error has been made in the formation of *experimentalize*, which also is a counterfeit. (410.)

2. **Leniency.**—There is properly no such word as this. It has been ignorantly used in place of *lenity*.

3. **Practitioneer.**—From the verb *practice*, we may and do have the noun *practicer* (or *practiser*), but there is no excuse for such a pretender as *practitioneer*.

4. **Presidential.**—As well might we say *parential*, *governmential*, as *presidential*. Adjectives in *ial* are formed from nouns in *ce;* as, official, commercial, etc.; but the regular way of forming adjectives from nouns ending in *ent* is to add simply *al;* as, parental, governmental, incidental, and hence, presidental. "The proper form would be presidental."—*Century Dictionary*.

5. **Preventative.**—The correct form is *preventive*.

6. **Proven.**—*Prove* is a "regular" verb, and hence its past and perfect participle forms are made by adding *d;* but *proven* is as base a coin as *loven* would be; as, for example, "Ephraim has *proven* that he has *loven* Susanna all the time."

7. **Resurrect, Resurrected.**—The use of this word as a transitive verb should be avoided by all who love purity of speech. It is a sacrilegious distortion of the idea of resurrection. *Resurrection* is a noun meaning 'rising again'—rising from the dead. There is no such verb as *resurrect*, and to make one by backward process from the noun *resurrection* is of a piece with *donate* from *donation*, and *intercess* from *intercession*. This trio of intruders should keep company with one another in banishment.

8. **Stand-point.**—Compounds made by the union of a noun with a noun, or a participle with a noun, are "self-defining;" that is, their meaning may be expressed by reversing the order of the parts and placing *of* or *for* between them. Thus, *house-top*, 'top of house;' *bread-knife*, 'knife for bread;' *sewing-machine*, 'machine for sewing;' *landing-place*, 'place of, or for, landing.' But how about *stand-point?* 'Point of, or for, stand' does not make sense. *Standing-point* is a point of, or for, standing;' but this is not what is meant by *stand-point*. The phrase *point of view* is the correct expression. Those who will insist on one word for convenience' sake might use *view-point*. (65[6].)

9. **Underhanded.**—"He did it in an underhanded way." There being no verb or noun *underhand*, how can we have the participially formed adjective, *underhanded?* [See 68[2] and 69[3].] *Underhand* is a good adjective, formed by prefixing *under* to the noun *hand*.

CLEARNESS AND FORCE.

280. Objects of Speech.—In using language, whether by tongue or pen, we should have two objects in view:

1. Speaking to *express* our thoughts;
2. Speaking to *impress* our thoughts.

In other words, our speech should be: 1. **Clear,**—*easily understood;* 2. **Forcible,**—*impressive.* If we have thoughts that are worth expressing, they should be expressed in language that has these two qualities, *clearness* and *force.* Of the two, clearness is the more important, since language cannot be forcible unless it is first clear in meaning. The opposite of *clearness* is *obscurity.* Obscure language is always *weak,*—the opposite of *forcible.*

Ambiguity is another thing that is opposed to clearness. An ambiguous sentence is one whose meaning is uncertain, because it may be construed to mean either of two things.

281. Causes of Obscurity.—The principal causes of obscurity are: 1. Misplaced words, phrases and clauses; 2. Ambiguous use of pronouns; 3. Unnecessary words; 4. Long sentences; 5. Misuse of words; 6. Incorrect punctuation.

282. Misplaced Words.—When a word is so placed that its meaning may be taken in either of two ways, its position is faulty. A general rule is that words should be placed so that their meaning cannot be mistaken.

In Latin and other inflected languages—the German, French, etc.,—the form of the word indicates its use in the sentence, and a change in the position or order of the words does not affect the meaning. But in English, which has almost no words whose forms indicate their use, we must depend upon the position of a word in a sentence. A single misplaced word may change the meaning of the entire sentence or make it ambiguous,—uncertain in meaning. In Latin, the *form* of words is everything; in English, the *order* of words is the principal thing. The Latin sentence is constructed on true grammatical principles; the English sentence, on logical principles.

283. Adverbs.—The words most likely to cause obscurity by being misplaced are adverbs. Of these, *only*, *not only*, *alone*, *always*, *too*, *nearly*, *merely*, *mostly*, and *chiefly* are the most troublesome. Probably no word in common use is so difficult to handle as *only*. As a rule, an adverb should stand next the word it modifies, usually just before it.

Tell what idea is conveyed by the *italicized* word in each of the following sentences; then change the position of the adverb so as to express the meaning intended, as shown by the co-ordinate construction:

1. I saw him *only;* I did not speak to him.
2. I have escaped *alone;* no one else escaped.
3. I *merely* spoke of figures; I did not speak of letters.
4. The natives *chiefly* live on rice; they eat scarcely anything else.
5. We *only* tried the last one; we did not try the others.
6. He *not only* makes shoes, but boots also.
7. All men are *not* to be trusted, for some are dishonest.
8. They will, too, *not merely* interest children, but grown-up persons.
9. Thales was *not only* famous for his knowledge of nature, but for his moral wisdom.
10. By greatness, I do not *only* mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view.—*Addison.*
11. The result is *not* pleasant to us *only* because it fulfills our predictions, but because any other would have been productive of mischief.—*Spectator.*

Quintilian's Rule: "Care should be taken, not that the hearer *may* understand, but that he *must* understand, whether he will or not."

(*a*) Change the position of the *italicized* words in the following sentences, and tell how the meaning is affected by the change. See how many different meanings can be conveyed by the same word in different positions.

1. I am *almost* ready to believe that they are all dunces.
2. I *then* understood why you did not go.
3. He stopped asking questions *abruptly* and left the room.
4. I have wondered *often* how it was done.
5. *Only* yesterday we received an order for fifty of this kind.
6. The heavens are open to the faithful *only* at intervals.
7. These will raise a man above any disappointments, and, by leading him *only* to feed his heart upon expectations which are likely to be realized, will do very much towards making him rejoice evermore.—*Fox.*

284. Adjectives.—Change the position of the *italicized* words in the following, and tell how the meaning is affected by the change. If necessary, introduce a preposition to improve the expression:

1. It was a *black* man's hat. 2. *Fine* lady's handkerchiefs for sale. 3. *Elegant* children's suits at low prices. 4. He found a *gold* gentleman's watch. 5. We sell *ready-made* gentlemen's overcoats very cheap. 6. A large stock of *plush* ladies' card cases just received. 7. *Copper-toed* children's shoes wear best. 8. *Steel* boy's skates for Christmas presents.

Remark: Descriptive words misplaced in this way do not often obscure the meaning, as in the first sentence above, but they weaken the expression by making it ludicrous.

(*a*) Comparative adjectives, such as *larger*, *better*, *clearer*, and contrasting adjectives, such as *different* and *other*, are often unnecessarily separated from their correlative words.

Examples: Yours is a *different* view of the matter *from* mine.
His was a *clearer* statement of the case *than* any I had heard.

While in such cases the meaning is, no doubt, clear enough, the sentences are smoother and more forcible if written thus:

Your view of the matter is different from mine.
His statement of the case was clearer than any I had heard.

Improve the following sentences in the same way:

1. This is a larger tract of land than I had supposed.
2. We could take no other course with him than the one we took.
3. They can accomplish more by working together than separately.
4. These are similar letters to the one I received from him.
5. This is a different course of proceeding from what we expected.
6. That is a much better statement of the case than yours.
7. The majority of persons are better educated in these days than people were then.

285. Position of Phrases and Clauses.—As with words, so with phrases and clauses. They should be so placed that their meaning cannot be misunderstood.

Under this head may be considered two classes of errors: 1. What are known as "squinting constructions;" 2. Incongruous arrangement of phrases and clauses.

286. Squinting Constructions.—This is one of the worst forms of obscurity, and one of the most difficult to avoid. It consists in throwing a word, phrase, or clause into a sentence so that it seems to look both ways; that is, it may be taken as belonging either to what goes before or to what follows.

Example: When I hear a person use a queer expression, or pronounce a name in reading differently from his neighbors, etc.—*Dean Alford.*

In this sentence, the phrase "in reading" looks two ways. It may be taken as meaning "pronounce a name in reading," or "in reading differently from his neighbors." A better arrangement is, "When I hear a person use a queer expression, or, in reading, pronounce a name differently from," etc.

Point out the "squinting" construction in each of the following sentences; then re-construct the sentence so as to clear it of the ambiguity:

1. And thus the son the fervent sire addressed.
2. It shames man not to feel man's human fear.
3. Tell him, if he is in the parlor, I do not care to see him.
4. The Romans understood liberty, at least, as well as we.
5. I said he is dishonest, it is true, and I am sorry for it.
6. Are these designs of which any man who was born in Britain, in any circumstances, ought to be ashamed?
7. The poor little child, after searching from one end of the market to the other, for a penny, at last, bought an apple.
8. Though some of the European rulers may be females, when spoken of altogether, they may be correctly classified under the denomination "kings."
9. The minister who grows less by his elevation, like a statue on a mighty pedestal, will always have his jealousy strong about him.—*Bolingbroke.*
10. Though our brother is upon the rack, as long as we ourselves are at ease, our senses will never inform us of what he suffers.—*Smith.*
11. This work in its full extent, being now afflicted with an asthma, and finding the power of life gradually declining, he had no longer courage to undertake.—*Johnson.*
12. Since it is necessary that there should be a perpetual intercourse of buying and selling, and dealing upon credit, where fraud is permitted or connived at, or hath no law to punish it, the honest dealer is always undone, and the knave gets the advantage.—*Swift.*

287. Incongruous Arrangement.—Phrases are often carelessly placed in such a way that while they do not obscure the meaning,

they make the language inconsistent or ludicrous, thus detracting from its force. Re-arrange the following sentences so as to express the meaning obviously intended.

1. It is the mind which does the work of the world after all.
2. It was my intention to begin the work every day this week.
3. A charitable lady wishes to adopt a little boy with a small family.
4. The child ran and screamed the moment it saw the dog, trembling from head to foot.
5. We could see the ship gliding under full sail through a spy-glass.
6. He received a reward for his bravery and the praise of all.
7. Dr. Hall will deliver a lecture on the importance of taking exercise before breakfast at three o'clock in the afternoon.
8. Wanted:—A room for a single gentleman not smaller than twelve feet long and eight feet wide.
9. A gentleman will let his house going abroad for the summer to a small family containing all modern improvements.
10. First prize to be given to the best lady and gentleman waltzer, consisting of a pair of solid gold bracelets and a medal.
11. Second prize to be given to the best polka couple, consisting of a pair of opera glasses and a medal.
12. Passengers are requested to purchase tickets before entering the cars at the company's office.
13. I cannot think of leaving you without distress.
14. The newspapers recommended that a meeting be called of the citizens.
15. He robbed an old man and then murdered him of $700.
16. The following lines were written by a gentleman who died some years ago for mere amusement.
17. The witness was ordered to withdraw from the bar in consequence of being intoxicated by the motion of an honorable member.
18. The beaux of that day used the abominable art of painting their faces as well as the women.
19. Wanted:—A saddle horse for a lady, weighing about 900 pounds.
20. The other witness was a man with one eye named Robert Welch.
21. A man was killed by a railroad car running into Boston supposed to be deaf.
22. I guarantee to sell a better hat than any competitor for less money.
23. What is the correct journal entry, no entry having been made of the patent on the books?
24. Merchants are too liable to be fined if found selling these slunks for violation of the law.
25. An editor of a newspaper says: "We have received a basket of fine grapes from our friend Mr. Wilson, for which he will please accept our compliments, some of which are nearly two inches in diameter."

26. The undersigned took up two young mares four or five years old, a dark iron gray, one having a wart on the right side of her head eight miles north of Atlanta.

27. By the time I had taken five bottles, I found myself completely cured, after having been brought so near to the gate of death, by means of your invaluable medicine.

28. Rats and gentlemen catched and waited on and all other jobs performed by Solomon Gundy.—*Advertisement.*

Note.—The last sentence belongs to a class of errors known as "cross-constructions." Similar to it are the following:

29. A keen eye and a graphic pen see and set down for us the characteristic details of both scenery and manners.

30. All goes on satisfactorily at Winchester, the attention and attendance, I think, gradually deepening and increasing.

31. The actual gross hypocrisy of the Tartufee and the Mawworm is abhored and condemned by every heart and tongue.

32. To any person an apology might be necessary; to you whose friendship can neither be heated nor cooled by correspondence or silence, I offer none.

288. Pronouns.—Obscurity often results from carelessness in the use of pronouns, particularly the personals, *he*, *she*, *they*, and *it*.

Examples: The boy assured his father that he was perfectly safe. Mr. Jones said he had talked with Mr. Brown again and that he now considered his plan impracticable.

In the first example, it is not clear who "was perfectly safe;" while in the second, it is uncertain whose "plan" is referred to.

In such cases, the obscurity may be avoided by reporting the speech in the first or second person, or by repeating the name; thus—

The boy said to his father, "you are (or, I am) perfectly safe." Mr. Jones said that he had talked with Mr. Brown again and that he now considered Mr. Brown's (or, the latter's) plan impracticable.

If, however, it is Mr. Jones's plan that is referred to, a repetition of the name is not sufficient to make the sentence clear; for "Mr. Jones said that he had talked with Mr. Brown again, and that Mr. Brown now considered his plan impracticable," might mean that Mr. Brown now considered his own plan impracticable, or that Mr. Brown now considered Mr. Jones's plan impracticable. In such cases, repeat the statement in the second person, thus:—

Mr. Jones said, "I have talked with Mr. Brown again and I now consider his plan impracticable;" or, "he now considers my plan impracticable."

(*a*) *Relative pronouns* (with the clauses introduced by them) are often misplaced. In some cases, the effect is merely an

awkward or ludicrous sentence; but in others, the result is obscurity, the antecedent of the relative being uncertain.

Examples: Everybody is leaving the doomed city *that* can get away.

It is folly to pretend to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, by heaping up treasures, *which* nothing can protect us against but the good providence of our Heavenly Father.—*Sherlock.*

In the first example, the meaning is plain enough, but the logical arrangement is, "Everybody that can get away is leaving the doomed city." In the second example, the antecedent of *which* is not so clear. As it stands, it seems to refer to *treasures.* The writer meant, however, to have it refer to *accidents*, and the arrangement should have been, "It is folly to pretend, by heaping up treasures, to arm ourselves against the accidents of life which nothing can protect us against," etc. Relative clauses should be so placed that there can be no doubt as to what is the antecedent of the relative.

Re-write the following sentences, so as to clear them of obscurity:

1. John told his brother that he thought he ought to help him all he could.
2. Mary wrote to her friend that her mother wanted her to come home.
3. The intellectual qualities of the youth were superior to those of his raiment.
4. The boy promised his father that he would pay his debts.
5. The farmer went to his neighbor and told him that his cattle were in his fields.
6. His servant being sick, he consented to allow his brother, a timid youth from the country, to take his place for a short time, and during that short time he was a constant annoyance to him.
7. Did you return that book to the library which I loaned you?
8. I allude to the article BLIND in the Encyclopædia Britannica published at Edinburgh in the year 1783, which was written by him.—*Mackenzie.*
9. Thus I have fairly given you, Sir, my own opinion, as well as that of a great majority of both houses here, relating to this weighty affair, upon which I am confident you may securely reckon.—*Swift.*
10. From a habit of saving time and paper, which they acquired at the university, they write in so diminutive a manner, etc.—*Swift.*
11. Her own story was that she had a quarrel with the deceased, first about her wages, and secondly about the soup, and that she seized the deceased by the throat, and she fell, and when she got up she was looking for something to strike her with, and upon this she struck the deceased a blow on the throat, and she fell, and died almost instantaneously.

289. Unnecessary Words.—As a rule, whatever does not add

to the thought, detracts just so much from its clearness and force. The unnecessary word that simply does not add to the sense is said to be *redundant.* When the word repeats an idea in the same sentence, the repetition is called *tautology.* Redundant and tautological words are said to be *superfluous.* When redundancy is carried to an extreme, in the use of unnecessary words and phrases, it is called *circumlocution.* Circumlocution is sometimes spoken of as "going around Robin Hood's barn to tell a thing."

Redundancy is illustrated by the following sentence:

They returned *back again* to the *same* place *from* whence they came *forth.*

Tautology is illustrated by the following:

Public interest in the matter was universal *everywhere.*

And the following is a sample of circumlocution:

Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden, whom, whenever an opportunity was presented, he praised through the whole period of his existence with unvaried liberality; and perhaps his character may receive some illustration if a comparison be instituted between him and the man whose pupil he was.

Professor Bain condenses this sentence thus:

"Pope professed himself the pupil of Dryden, who he lost no opportunity in praising; and his character may be illustrated by a comparison with his master."

Note.—The use of words unnecessary to the sense is sometimes allowable for the sake of emphasis; as, "To have and to hold, to love and to cherish." "O Absalom, my son, my son!" "They worked with might and main."

This redundancy of words for effect is most common in poetry.

Example: Alone, alone, all alone,
Alone on the wide, wide sea.

Re-write the following, leaving out all unnecessary words:

1. The paper was full of a great many valuable suggestions.
2. The machines are just exactly alike in every respect.
3. My esteemed and respected hearers, I am aware that this is a seeming paradox.
4. This is so clear a proposition, that I rest the whole argument entirely upon it.
5. Never did Atticus succeed better in gaining the universal love and esteem of all men.—*Spectator.*

6. The complication of the old laws of France had given rise to a chaos of confusion.—*Alison.*

7. It was founded mainly on the entire monopoly of the whole trade with the colonies.—*Ib.*

8. The very first discovery of it strikes the mind with inward joy, and spreads delight through all its faculties.—*Addison.*

9. Of the vegetable productions of foreign countries, there is none of greater value, or held in greater estimation, than that of sugar.

10. I do not trumpet water as an infallible nostrum—as a universal panacea for all the ills that human flesh is heir to.—*Blackie.*

11. He always communicated his direction with clearness and in the most concise terms, yet without obscurity.—*Godwin.*

12. The reason why Socrates was condemned to death was on account of his unpopularity.—*Times.*

13. It is with the most unfeigned and heartfelt gratitude that I appear before this enlightened and intelligent audience tonight, to thank them, as I do, for the kind and generous sympathy they have manifested and shown in favor of the cause of my struggling country.

290. Long Sentences.—Long sentences, particularly those of extreme length, are likely to be obscure. However, obscurity in this direction is the result, not so much of putting a large number of words into a sentence, as of crowding into the same sentence things that have but little connection with each other, and which might better be put into separate sentences.

Example: The vessel made for the shore, and the passengers soon crowded into the boats and reached the beach in safety, where the inhabitants received them with the utmost kindness, and a shelter was provided for them.

The thoughts here are much clearer when put into two sentences, thus:

The vessel made for the shore, and the passengers crowding into the boats soon reached the beach in safety. They were received with the utmost kindness by the inhabitants who provided a shelter for them.

Long sentences often result from hanging one relative clause upon another, and not unfrequently the effect is ludicrous.

Example: As we rode to town we met a man with a flock of geese, who was talking to a little girl in a pink sun-bonnet, who was carrying a basket on her arm, which contained a few eggs which she was taking to market.

This sentence may be cleared of its obscurity and absurdity by re-arranging it as follows:

As we rode to town we met a man with a flock of geese. He was talking to a little girl in a pink sun-bonnet. The girl was carrying on her arm a basket containing a few eggs, which she was taking to market.

As to the proper length for sentences, no rule can be given. It is not always possible to make our sentences short; nor would it be advisable to do so if we could. When several short sentences occur together, they have, by reason of the frequent full stops at periods, an unpleasant effect on the mind of the reader or listener. The best way is to have a mixture of short and long sentences,—the short ones predominating, and the long ones not too long to be clear. Macaulay's sentences are models in this respect, and young writers would do well to give considerable time to the study of his writings. The following extracts from an essay on the trial of Warren Hastings illustrate Macaulay's style:

The place was worthy of such a trial. It was the great hall of William Rufus; the hall which had resounded with the inauguration of thirty kings; the hall which had witnessed the just sentence of Bacon and the just absolution of Somers; the hall where the eloquence of Strafford had for a moment awed and melted a victorious party inflamed with just resentment; the hall where Charles had confronted the High Court of Justice with the placid courage which has half redeemed his fame. Neither military nor civil pomp was wanting. The avenues were lined with grenadiers. The streets were kept clear by cavalry. The peers, robed in gold and ermine, were marshalled by the heralds under Garter-King-at-Arms. The judges, in their vestments of state, attended to give advice on points of law. . . . . .

The Sergeants made proclamation. Hastings advanced to the bar, and bent his knee. The culprit was indeed not unworthy of that great presence. He had ruled an extensive and populous country, had made laws and treaties, had sent forth armies, had set up and pulled down princes. And in his high place he had so borne himself, that all had feared him, that most had loved him, and that hatred itself could deny him no title to glory, except virtue. He looked like a great man, and not like a bad man.

291. Misused Words.—An eminent writer has said: "In speaking or writing English, we have only to choose the right word and put it in the right place." We have seen that the right word in the wrong place may make the sentence ambiguous or cause it to say what the writer does not intend. Now the *right word* is often as important as the *right place;* for obscurity may be caused by using the *wrong* word in the *right* place. To illustrate this, take the word *want*, so commonly misused in the sense of *ought* or *needs*. Thus—

George wants to leave his work for a while and take a rest.

In this sentence, *wants* expresses a desire on George's part, whereas the writer meant, "George ought (or needs) to leave his work"—etc. And so

"You want to behave," "They want to come pretty soon," "He wants to mind his own business," are either ludicrous or ambiguous in meaning.

292. Big Words.—Most of the errors in the use of words result from a very common disposition to use "big words for little ideas;" to use fine-sounding terms regardless, of their meaning. Persons who are self-conscious about their language, and those who effect to know more than they do, are especially liable to fall into this habit. They have an erroneous notion that big words sound learned, when, in reality, the opposite is true. With such a person, a hired girl is not a servant but a "domestic;" a school is an "institution;" an oyster is a "bivalve;" a person does not recover his health but "recuperates;" and so forth. A woman who has this false idea of elegance in language does not tell us she is sorry she cannot come to see us, but she "regrets that the multiplicity of her engagements precludes her from accepting our polite invitation." If the persons who talk in this way could but know how ridiculous they often make themselves, their knowledge of the fact might lead them to talk as sensible people ought.

The importance of using plain English words is illustrated by the following story of Benjamin Franklin:

"When Franklin was a boy he thought it fine to use long words, and one day told his father that he had swallowed some *acephalous molluses*, which so alarmed him that he shrieked for help. The mother came in with warm water, and they forced half-a-gallon down Benjamin's throat with the garden pump, then held him upside down, the father saying, "If we don't get those things out of Benny, he'll be poisoned sure." When Benjamin was allowed to get his breath, he explained that the articles referred to were oysters. His father was so enraged that he beat him an hour for frightening the family. Franklin never afterward used a word of two syllables when one would do."

Newspapers are the worst offenders in the matter of using high-sounding terms. A fifth-rate newspaper seems incapable of telling us in plain English that persons go to their homes, but must say that "individuals proceed to their residences;" houses are not burned, but "edifices are consumed by the devouring element;" the fire was not put out, but the "conflagration was extinguished;" murderers are not hung, but the "victims of unbridled passions are launched into eternity;" a firm does not adopt a new method of handling the details of its business, but it "inaugurates a new regime for transacting the multifarious minutiae of the enterprise."

The Twenty-third Psalm (than which there is no better example of pure and simple English) translated into this inflated newspaper style would read as follows:

"Jehovah is my pastor; I shall not be indigent. He constraineth me to recline in verdant fields; he conducteth me in proximity to the unrippled liquidities," etc.

293. Cant.—Swift says: "To introduce and multiply cant words is the most ruinous corruption in any language."

Cant is the use of words and phrases by the people of a sect, trade, or profession, in a manner peculiar to themselves. It includes the use of words in a way so different from their common and general usage that to a person outside the business or profession in which they are so used they sound absurd and may obscure the meaning. The habit of using cant expressions is one into which we are all more or less liable to fall. Through the newspapers, the cant of the various trades and professions receives a wide circulation and a tacit sanction. Through them, also, too much of the slang of the sporting world and the stage is put into the mouths of those who at best are not very particular about their speech. Persons who, ordinarily, are careful about their language, see and hear these cant and slang expressions until they begin almost unconsciously to adopt them.

The following are common cant expressions in the commercial world of today:

Line. "We have the finest line of winter goods ever seen in this city."

Closing Out. "We are closing out our entire stock at *rock-bottom* prices."

Please find. "Please find enclosed our check for the balance due you."

We beg. "We beg to acknowledge the receipt of your favor of the 19th inst."

A very common sort of cant is the use of descriptive adjectives as nouns. The grocery-keeper offers us "Jersey sweets at 25 cents a peck," by which he means 'Jersey sweet potatoes,' *not* molasses, sugar, and candy. The dry-goods merchant advertises his "domestics" at so much a yard, meaning 'domestic goods,' *not* his servants.

294. Punctuation.—As a rule, we should not depend upon marks of punctuation to make our meaning clear, but should aim to secure clearness independent of these mechanical aids. However, in many cases, correct punctuation will help to make clear an otherwise obscure sentence, while incorrect punctuation may not only cause obscurity but in many instances give an absurd or erroneous interpretation to the language. For illustrations on this point, see page 176.

295. Brevity.—In the preceding paragraphs, Clearness and Force have been studied negatively; that is, we have considered those things which cause obscurity and which must be avoided to get clearness. Under the head of Brevity, we shall study the positive side of the subject.

Brevity is not merely an absence of circumlocution; it is the opposite of circumlocution. To leave off all redundant words is only comparative brevity. Absolute brevity goes farther than that. A sentence in which there are no really redundant words may be abbreviated and thus made more forcible without losing any of its clearness. This abbreviation is accomplished in two ways: 1. By ellipsis; 2. By abridgment.

296. Ellipsis.—Ellipsis is the omission of such words as will be clearly understood and which must be supplied when it comes to analyzing the sentence. The following are the more common ways of shortening sentences by ellipsis:

1. Omitting the conjunctions from a series of words, phrases, or clauses, of the same kind. Thus, "I came, I saw, I conquered," is just as clear and far more forcible than "I came, and I saw, and I conquered."

[For further examples, and for punctuation, see Rule 2 for the comma, 393.]

2. By omitting the subject from each, except the first, of a series of assertions about the same person or thing, at the same time omitting the conjunctions.

Examples: Charles went to Washington, transacted the business for his father, visited the Capitol, White House, and other places of interest, and returned within the week.

3. By omitting the verb from each, except the first, of a series of co-ordinate clauses in which the same verb is used.

Examples: Youth looks forward; age, backward.

Reading makes a full man; conference, a ready man; writing, an exact man.

[For further examples, and punctuation, see Rule 4 for use of comma, 305.]

297. Abridgment.—Abridgment consists in using a short expression as the equivalent of a longer one. The principal ways in which sentences are shortened by abridgment are:

1. By using single words instead of phrases.

[For examples, see paragraphs 26 and 118.]

2. By reducing clauses to single words or phrases.

Examples: He is a man whom people can trust—'He is a trustworthy man.'

A man who has no hope is like a ship without an anchor—'A man without hope is like '—etc.

3. By using an infinitive instead of a phrase or a clause.

Examples: I came for the purpose of learning what I could about it—'I came to learn what I could about it.'

All he seems to care for is that he may become rich—'All he seems to care for is to become rich.'

Note.—When a noun clause used as an object is thus abridged, its subject becomes the incomplete object of the principal clause, and the infinitive becomes the object complement (222.)

Example: They requested that he should hand in his resignation—'They requested him to hand in his resignation.'

4. By reducing a subordinate clause to an imperative co-ordinate clause.

Example: If you are patient, you will succeed—'Be patient, and you will succeed.'

5. By using a participle in the place of the subject and predicate of a subordinate clause.

Example: Those who live in glass houses should not throw stones—'Those living in glass houses should not throw stones.'

When we had finished our task, we returned to the city—'Having finished'—etc.

While we were standing on the hill, we could see the enemy in the distance—'Standing on the hill, we could see the enemy in the distance.'

Note.—The last example is a faulty contraction, since there is danger of its being construed to mean that the enemy was standing on the hill. Participial constructions are especially liable to such ambiguity, and for this reason their use in abridgment requires extra care to prevent obscurity.

6. By reducing adverbial clauses to attendant elements. [See 214 and 215.]

Example: Because the weather was bad, the audience was small—'The weather being bad, the audience was small.'

7. A noun clause introduced by *that* may be abridged to a participle and its adjuncts, one of the adjuncts being the possessive form of the subject of the abridged clause.

Examples: That he is honest is doubted by no one—'His being honest,' etc.

I was not aware that it was he—'I was not aware of its being he.'

Caution.—Horace says: "While I take pains to be brief, I fall into obscurity."

"It is best, at all events, for beginners, not to aim so much at being brief, or forcible, as at being perfectly clear. Forcible style springs from vividness and exactness of thought, and from a corresponding vividness and exactness in the use of words. When you are describing anything, endeavor to *see* it and describe it as you see it. Exactness in the use of words requires an exact knowledge of their meanings and differences."—*How to Write Clearly.*

298. Choice of Words. "The right word in the right place" implies something more than not using the wrong word. It implies a careful choice between words usually regarded as synonyms but which are not so. In reality, there are but few absolute synonyms, almost none, in our language. Each word has some shade of meaning which cannot be exactly expressed by any other word.

To the Teacher.—It would be well to have students devote a lesson or two to the writing of sentences that will illustrate the difference between such words as *symptoms* and *indications; enough* and *sufficient; defective* and *deficient; speed, rapidity*, and *velocity;* and other words so commonly misused because they are supposed to be synonyms. Another good exercise in connection with the work of this chapter is to have students bring in errors which they may find in newspapers, magazines, or books. There is scarcely a daily or weekly paper but will furnish several examples of redundancy, or faulty arrangement, many of them as ridiculous as those given in paragraphs 287 and 289.

HINTS TO YOUNG WRITERS AND SPEAKERS.

299. The following extracts from the pens of those competent to speak on the subject are given here for the benefit of the inexperienced. Others, however, may find in them some valuable suggestions.

If you hear poor English and read poor English, you will pretty surely speak poor English, and write poor English.—*White.*

In the commerce of speech use only coin of gold and silver. . . . Be profound with clear terms, and not with obscure terms.—*Joubert.*

Never be grandiloquent when you want to drive home a searching truth. Don't whip with a switch that has the leaves on, if you want to tingle.—*H. W. Beecher.*

I observe that all distinguished poetry is written in the oldest and simplest English words. There is a point, above coarseness and below refinement, where propriety abides.—*Emerson.*

When you doubt between words, use the plainest, the commonest, the most idiomatic. Eschew fine words as you would rouge; love simple ones as you would native roses on your cheek.—*Hare.*

Altogether the style of a writer is a faithful representative of his mind; therefore, if any man wishes to write a clear style, let him first be clear in his thoughts; and if he would write in a noble style, let him first possess a noble soul.—*Goethe.*

Whatever you have to say, my friend, whether witty, or grave, or gay,
Condense as much as ever you can, and say in the readiest way;
And whether you're writing on rural affairs or particular things in town,
Just take a word of friendly advice, *boil it down.*—*Anon.*

Never use a word simply because it sounds well, unless it says what you wish to say. Take nothing for granted in the meaning of words. It often happens that careless writers transfer words from books of reference into their own writing without carefully ascertaining what the words mean.—*H. L. Keeler.*

Be simple, be unaffected, be honest in your speaking and writing. Never use a long word where a short one will do. Call a spade a *spade*, not 'a well-known oblong instrument of manual husbandry;' let home be *home*, not a *residence;* a place a *place*, not a *locality;* and so of the rest. Where a short word will do, you always lose by using a long one. You lose in clearness; you lose in honest expression of your meaning; and, in the estimation of all men who are qualified to judge, you lose in reputation for ability.—*Dean Alford.*

Our diction is the expression of our minds. The thought is father to the word. Nothing, therefore, in discourse can take the place of close, consecutive thinking. A writer's diction will be good up to the measure of his thought. Beyond this, all is mere verbiage. It may astonish the rustic but cannot deceive the intelligent. Mere verbal power is one thing. Mental power transmitted through appropriate language is another. True expression is the expression of thought.—*T. W. Hunt.*

In language, as in the fine arts, there is but one way to attain to excellence, and that is by study of the most faultless models. As the air and manner of a gentleman can be acquired only by living constantly in good society, so grace and purity of expression must be attained by a familiar acquaintance with the standard authors. It is astonishing how rapidly we may by this practice enrich our vocabularies, and how speedily we imitate and unconsciously reproduce in our language the niceties and delicacies of expression which have charmed us in a favorite author.—*William Mathews.*

Simple and unpretending ignorance is always respectable, and sometimes charming; but there is little that more deserves contempt than the pretence of ignorance to knowledge. The curse and the peril of language in this day, and particularly in this country, is, that it is at the mercy of men who, instead of being conten to use it well according to their honest ignorance, use it ill according to their affected knowledge; who, being vulgar, would seem elegant; who, being empty, would seem full; who make up in pretence what they lack in reality; and whose little thoughts, let off in enormous phrases, sound like fire-crackers in an empty barrel.—*Richard Grant White.*

As a rule, employ no French or other foreign words. To many good people they are unintelligible or unpronounceable; and unless your knowledge be very accurate there is a chance of their being incorrect. They are in bad taste and wholly out of tune; and, moreover, the chances are a thousand to one that there are words enough in English to tell more than you know. Do not clothe little thoughts in big words. The effect is less disagreeable when the words seem unequal to the weight of sense they have to bear. Do not "inaugurate" a new style of shearing your "phenomenal" poodle. . . . . .

The habitual and appreciative reading of good authors will influence your style without your thinking of it. Having a stock of words acquired by reading and having mastered your subject as a whole and in its details, tell your story in your own words and in your own way without any thought about style or fine writing. If time be allowed you, lay aside your manuscript until you have in a manner forgotten it and can see it with something like the eyes of a stranger. Then go over it carefully, strike out every word that can be spared, change every word and every sentence that can be changed for the better, and leave the rest unaltered.—*Samuel Ramsey.*

PUNCTUATION.

300. Punctuation, from the Latin *punctum* ('point'), is the art of pointing off printed or written language so as to make its meaning plain.

Remarks.—In this work, the aim has been to give only those rules that will be found of practical every-day use. The frequency of the comma as a mark of punctuation, and the variety of its uses, make it advisable to formulate a series of rules under which those uses may be grouped. These rules are supplemented by examples and a sufficient number of sentences for practice to fix the rule more firmly in the student's mind.

The uses of the other marks of punctuation are so few and simple that formal rules are not given for them, their most common uses being merely stated in a specific way.

MARKS USED IN PUNCTUATING.

Comma (,)	**Colon (:)**
Marks of Parenthesis ( )	**Period (.)**
Dash (—)	**Interrogation (?)**
Brackets [ ]	**Exclamation (!)**
Semicolon (;)	**Quotation Marks (" ")**

301. The **comma** indicates the slightest degree of separation between the parts of a sentence.

302. RULE 1.—Introductory words, attendant elements, intermediate expressions, and parenthetical words and phrases, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Note 1.—With the "introductory words" may be classed those words that are "independent by direct address" (see 206 *a* and *b*); also such words as *yes*, *no*, *first*, *second*, *therefore*, *however*, when used merely to introduce a statement. Of the introductory words (paragraph 207), *that*, *it*, and *there* (*b*), and the introductory conjunctions (*c*), do not come under this rule.

Note 2.—Attendant elements.—These have been fully explained under the head of "absolute constructions," pages 89 and 90. The examples given in paragraphs 214 and 216, and the sentences in paragraph 215, fully illustrate this part of the rule.

(*a*) When the pleonastic use of a word is more formal, being used as a title or as the subject of a discourse, it is followed by the colon; as, "Heaven: What is It and Where is It?"

Note 3.—Parenthetical words and phrases are those not essential to the meaning of the sentence in which they stand. Examples: "I will, *however*, keep the matter in mind." "We are, *in fact*, only beginning to feel its effects upon our business."

The following list contains those words and phrases most commonly used in a parenthetical

way: Therefore, then, however, perhaps, namely, indeed, too, surely, finally, moreover, accordingly, nevertheless, in short, in fact, in fine, in truth, in reality, in brief, in a word, so to speak, no doubt, to be brief, to be sure, after all, of course, in the first place, in the second place, etc.

Note 4.—Intermediate expressions are clauses and expressions not exactly parenthetical in character, yet so placed as to come between some of the essential parts of a sentence, as for instance, between the subject and predicate. Example: "Truth, *like gold*, shines brighter by collision." Under this head may be placed those constructions known as "nouns in apposition," or "explanatory modifiers," which, together with their modifiers, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "Paul, the great apostle, was a man of energy." When the noun in apposition is unmodified or closely connected, no comma is required; as, "Paul the apostle preached to the Gentiles." Titles following names are appositive and should be separated from the name, and (in case of more than one title) from each other by commas; as, James Hills, Esq.; Rev. Noah Porter, D. D., LL. D. [See pp. 87-8.]

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.*

1. No I am not prepared to do so. 2. Again we often hear men say that they will not believe what they cannot understand. 3. Why this is all wrong. 4. Mr. President I rise to a point of order. 5. My dear sir you are in error about this matter. 6. We trust however that you may yet see it in a different light. 7. They were indeed better than we expected. 8. He will not therefore consent to the change of time. 9. Consequently it will not do to present the matter in that meeting. 10. They are in fact only waiting for a favorable opportunity. 11. After all it is possible that you may be wrong. 12. Just now as it happens we are out of them. 13. Secondly let us proceed to prove it from his own admission. 14. To be sure we have only his word for it. 15. Education rightly applied will bring success and honor. 16. A man of great wealth may for want of education and refinement of manner become a mere cipher in society. 17. Business education to use a figure is the golden key to business success. 18. Charity on whatever side we contemplate it is one of the highest Christian graces. 19. The reader should however as he proceeds from sentence to sentence make a note of whatever strikes his attention. 20. Then came Jesus the doors being shut and stood in the midst. 21. Victoria the Queen of England is very wealthy. 22. We the people of the United States do hereby ordain and establish this constitution.

303. RULE 2.—Words, phrases, and clauses, forming a series and having the same construction, should be separated from each other by commas, unless all the conjunctions are given.

This rule has a variety of applications which, for convenience, may be examined under the following heads:

1. **Words.**—Words forming a series admit four cases, as follows:

(*a*) When a conjunction is used between each two of the words, no commas

* **To the Teacher.**—Do not allow students to mark the punctuations in their books.

are required; as, "Industry and honesty and temperance and frugality are among the cardinal virtues."

(*b*) When all the conjunctions but the last are omitted, a comma should be placed after each of the words excepting the last one; as, "Industry, honesty, temperance, and frugality are among the cardinal virtues."

(*c*) All the conjunctions may be omitted, in which case a comma should be placed after the last word in the series, to separate it from what follows; as, "Industry, honesty, temperance, frugality, are among the cardinal virtues."

(*d*) When there are an even number of words, four or more, each alternate conjunction may be omitted, leaving the words in pairs; as, "Industry and honesty, temperance and frugality, are among the cardinal virtues."

2. **Modified Words and Phrases.**—Expressions consisting of phrases or principal words and their modifiers, when forming a series, admit the four cases given above for single words.

Examples: Pure thoughts, good deeds, and noble aspirations elevate a man. Love for study, a desire to do right, and carefulness in choosing our companions are important traits of character.

3. **Co-ordinate Clauses.**—Simple co-ordinate members of a compound sentence, closely connected in thought, admit cases (*b*) and (*c*) for *words*, and should be punctuated accordingly. However, two simple sentences connected by a co-ordinate conjunction are separated by a comma, unless they are very short and closely connected in thought.

Example: Speak as you mean, do as you profess, [and] perform what you promise. [For further examples, see paragraph 50; also exercise 18, page 22, and the compound sentences in paragraph 95.]

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. They have been prompt honest and generous in all their dealings with us. 2. She writes an easy strong legible hand. 3. Apples pears grapes bananas and oranges have an upward tendency in the market. 4. He was brave pious patriotic in all his aspirations. 5. Infinite space endless numbers and eternal duration fill the mind with great ideas. 6. Sickness and suffering sorrow and despair poverty and crime are fruits of intemperance. [Write in four ways according to cases *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d*, Rule 2.] 7. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them wise men use them. 8. The frost had set in the low damp ground was hard the dykes were frozen. 9. Modern engineering spans whole continents tunnels mountains and rivers and dykes out old ocean himself. 10. Trifles make perfection and perfection is no trifle. 11. It is a useful accomplishment to be able to read write spell or cipher with accuracy. [Write this sentence in the four forms mentioned under Rule 2.] 12. Did God create for the poor a coarser earth a thinner air a paler sky? 13. To cleanse our opinions from false-

hood our hearts from malignity and our actions from vice is our chief concern. 14. Eating or drinking laboring or sleeping let us do all in moderation. 15. To have and to hold for better for worse for richer for poorer in sickness and in health to love and to cherish.

304. RULE 3.—Inverted phrases and clauses, and phrases and clauses not closely connected with the words they modify, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Note 1.—An "inverted" phrase or clause is one that stands at the beginning of a sentence instead of following the word it modifies; thus, "To supply the deficiency, he resorted to a shameful trick." In this sentence, *To supply the deficiency* modifies "trick," and if it followed that word, no comma would be required.

All sentences beginning with subordinate conjunctions contain inverted clauses. The most common are those beginning with *if* or *when*; as, "If you are in a hurry, you need not wait for us." "When a man ceases to go up, he begins to go down."

Note 2.—It is not always possible to place phrases and clauses next the words they limit, for the reason that two or more phrases or clauses may modify the same word. Phrases and clauses that are thus separated from their antecedent words should be preceded by the comma. When a phrase or a clause is the antecedent of a relative pronoun, the relative should be preceded by a comma. [For examples, see 82*c*.]

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Of all our senses sight is the most important. 2. In reply to your letter I wish to say that it is contrary to our rules, etc. 3. In answer to your inquiry we are pleased to inform you that the note was duly settled. 4. In view of these facts we shall not advise you to return. 5. When you have completed your work there come and see us. 6. If you are not satisfied with your present position you are at liberty to resign and go elsewhere. 7. If you would succeed in business be punctual in observing your engagements. 8. If you wish a consignment of these goods telegraph us immediately. 9. Hoping to hear from you soon I remain yours truly. 10. Please telegraph me on receipt of this letter saying when they will be ready to ship.

305. RULE 4.—The omission of the verb in a sentence or clause should be indicated by a comma.

Note.—This omission of the verb is what is known as "ellipsis," and may occur in two ways: 1. For emphasis, or mere rhetorical effect in short sentences; 2. By giving it in the first of a series of brief sentences and omitting it in the rest of them to avoid repetition.

England's friend, Ireland's foe. (Meaning, "England's friend *is* Ireland's foe.")
Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; writing, an exact man.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. The wise man seeks to shine in himself; a fool to outshine others. 2. Curiosity allures the wise; vanity the foolish; and pleasure both. 3. The first ingredient in conversation is truth; the next good sense; the third good humor;

and the fourth wit. 4. The poor man is rich with contentment; the rich man poor without it. 5. Leisure without learning is death; idleness the grave of the living man.

306. RULE 5.—In dating, addressing, and directing letters, if two or more items occupy the same line, they should be separated from each other by commas.

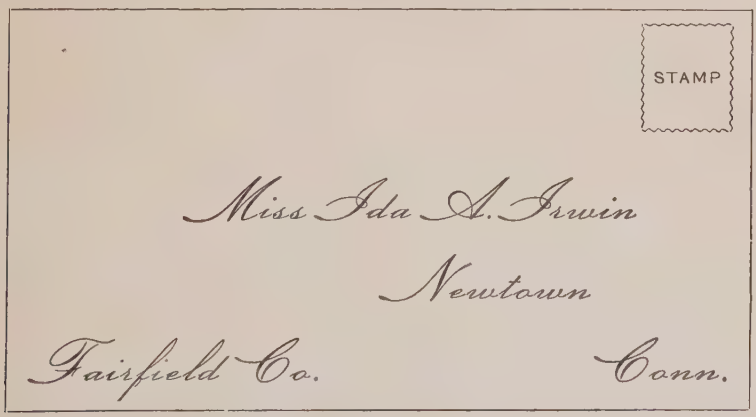
This rule is illustrated by the following models:

Argos, Ind., Jan. 8, '92.

Miss Ida A. Irwin

Newtown, Conn.

Note 1.—The "items" in the date line are: 1. Post-office; 2. County (if the place is small); 3. State; 4. Month and day; 5. Year. When one of these items is abbreviated (as is often the case with the State and month), both a period and a comma should be used, the former for the abbreviation and the latter because it belongs there when the word is written in full.



Note 2.—The place occupied by "Fairfield Co." in the model given above is used for the street address in directing letters to persons in large cities; also for the post-office box number, or for the name of the person to whose care the letter is directed.

[The teacher will furnish the material for practice under this rule.]

307. RULE 6.—Short quotations should be preceded by a comma.

Example: His last words were, "Don't give up the ship."

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. He remarked "I fear it is true." 2. There is a great deal of truth in the saying "Pretty is as pretty does." 3. Dr. Johnson says "I can abstain but I can't be temperate." 4. Their watchword was "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

[For punctuation in case of extended quotations, or quotations introduced in a formal way, see Rule 4 for use of colon, 313.]

308. RULE 7.—Commas are used to separate the figures of large numbers into periods of three figures each.

Examples: $36,578; 9,235,768; 13,475,629; $3,563,847.91.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE.

Punctuate the following:

1. There is much in the proverb "Without pains no gains." 2. Each colony at the end of King Philip's war found itself weak from the loss of men. 3. Character the glory of all great men is the best part of everyone. 4. The third president was Thomas Jefferson the writer of the Declaration of Independence. 5. A man once hated is not easily raised again to honor. 6. John Bright said of boys "Teach them arithmetic thoroughly and they are made men." 7. Many are the valuable purposes framed which end only in words. 8. Mothers create the moral atmosphere of their homes which is the nutriment of man's moral being. 9. Some books are to be tasted; others to be swallowed. 10. What one dies for not his dying glorifies him. 11. What it is our duty to do we must do not because anyone can force it from us but because it is right. 12. To confess the truth I was to blame. 13. Mr. Chairman the subject shall receive immediate attention. 14. No State shall without the consent of Congress lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports. 15. He has lost wealth home and friends. 16. Trifles make perfection and perfection is no trifle.

Remark.—Their use being similar to the parenthetical use of the comma, the Dash, Marks of Parenthesis, and Brackets are introduced at this point.

309. The **dash.**—Dashes are used—

1. When the parenthetical expression has not as close connection with the rest of the sentence as would be indicated by commas; as—

The statement may be true—I am not prepared to dispute it—that he is guilty.

2. When there is a sudden break or transition in the thought; as—

In the next place—but I will not discuss the matter further.

3. To mark the omission of letters or figures; as—

Mrs. W——n. The city of C——d. Matthew IX:1-14. Pages 48-52. 1776-79

4. After *as, namely*, etc., when the enumeration or statement thus introduced begins on the next line; also to separate the name of an author from an extract from his writings; as—

The man that blushes is not quite a brute.—*Young*.

Remark.—Many persons, being ignorant of the rules for punctuating, make a weak effort to conceal their ignorance by throwing dashes into their writing in an indiscriminate way. This habit is to be condemned, and young writers, particularly, should guard against it.

310. Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose explanatory words, or when the parenthetical part has little or no connection with the rest of the sentence.

Note.—"If a point would be required between the parts of a sentence, in case no parenthesis were there, then, when the parenthesis is inserted, said point should be inserted also, and should be placed after the second mark of parenthesis; as, 'Pride, in some disguise or other, is the most ordinary spring of action.' 'Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most ordinary spring of action.' If the parenthetical part requires, at the end, a point of its own, this point should come inside of the last mark of parenthesis, and the point belonging to the main sentence should come before the first mark of parenthesis; as, 'While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellow-men, (and why should he not desire it?) he disdains to obtain their good-will by dishonorable means.' 'Say not in thine heart, "Who shall ascend into heaven? (that is to bring Christ down from above;) or, who shall descend into the deep? (that is to bring up Christ again from the dead;) but what saith it?"' [This applies to points used in connection with the *dash* and *brackets*.]—*Hart's Rhetoric*.

(*a*) One frequent use of the marks of parenthesis is to enclose figures and letters referring to a note, rule, paragraph, section, remark, or page, to which attention is called. For examples, see almost any page of this book.

(*b*) Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose an amount or number in figures, when it is also written in words.

Examples: Ship us twenty (20) bushels of apples by freight. Enclosed find twenty dollars ($20) to apply on account.

311. Brackets are similar to marks of parenthesis, but are restricted in their use to enclose matter that is independent of the sentence in which it occurs; such as interpolations, notes, corrections, or explanations, made by authors in quoting from others, and by editors, when they introduce words of their own into matter furnished by contributors.

312. A **semicolon** should be used—

1. Just before such words as *namely, as, thus, viz., i. e.*, introducing an illustration or enumeration.

Example: The word "knowledge," strictly employed, implies three things; namely, truth, proof, and conviction.

When the words following one of these expressions are thrown into the body of a sentence, in a parenthetical way, no semicolon is required. [See *Note 3*, Rule 1, for comma.]

2. After each item in a series of specific statements; as, for instance, a list of articles where prices or qualifying expressions are used; names of authors or their works; dates or any list of numbers intended to be taken separately.

Example: We quote prices as follows: No. 2, $1.00; fair to medium, 90 cts.; No. 3, dull at 80 cts.; poorer grades not in demand.

3. To separate closely connected simple sentences when the conjunction is omitted, and to separate the members of compound sentences when one or more of the members contain commas, especially when the commas indicate the omission of the verb.

[The rule itself furnishes one illustration. For further examples, see exercises 19, 20, and 21, page 22, and the second example under Rule 5, for the comma, 306. See, also, the quotation from Max Müeller, p. 96.]

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Greece has given us three historians namely Herodotus Xenophon and Thucydides. 2. We have on hand several copies of the following works which we offer cheap: Laws of Business *Parsons* The Conflict of Laws 2 Vol *Story* Blackstone's Commentaries. 3. Our annual output has been as follows: in 1888 23000 1889 32000 1890 38000 1891 47500. 4. We wish to call your attention to the following prices of our machines: No 1 $75 No 2 $82 No 3 $87.50. 5. Piety is the best profession honesty the best policy vice its own punishment virtue its own reward.

313. The **colon** should be used—

1. Between figures designating hours and minutes; as, 9:10 A.M.; 7:45 P.M.

2. After the salutation at the beginning of a letter; as, Sir:, Gentlemen: In such cases, it is often followed by a dash.

3. Before an enumeration of articles or parts introduced by such expressions as "the following" "as follows" (or 'as follow'); also after the word "Example," when capitalized.

4. After a formal introduction to a speech, or lengthy quotation; as, His reply was this: "America has millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute."

Note.—Formerly the colon was used in the following ways: 1. To separate closely connected sentences; 2. To separate from a sentence, complete in itself, an additional clause of inference or explanation, the connecting word (usually *for*, *but* or *yet*) being omitted; as,—Apply yourself to study [for]: it will redound to your honor. 3. To divide long sentences whose

members themselves were separated by semicolons. [For examples of first and third uses, see Twenty-third Psalm, page 98.] These uses of the colon are not regarded now, except by very careful writers in the higher types of literature. In ordinary writing, the semicolon has taken the place of the colon in the first and second uses mentioned above (the connecting word being used); while the period has taken its place in the third, making two sentences instead of one.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Trains depart as follows 630 A M 1145 A M 410 P M 715 P M and 1050 P M
2. Dear Madam Sir Miss Brown Dear Friend To whom it may concern
3. We should be pleased to supply you with any or all of the following popular periodicals The Century Harper's and Scribner's monthlies The Arena and the North American Review
4. Please ship us at once by fast freight the following goods
5. Patrick Henry closed his speech with these words Cæsar had his Brutus Charles the First his Cromwell and George the Third may profit by their example

314. The **period** should be used in the following places:

1. At the close of all assertive and imperative sentences.

2. After all abbreviations; as, Co., Mass., Dr., Mdse., U. S. A.

3. As a decimal point between dollars and cents, and after the denominations of Sterling money; as, $4.50; $35,627.89; £4. 15s.; £19. 3s. 4d.

4. After letters used as numerals, and after figures used to number paragraphs, notes, remarks, questions, or any list of particulars; as, (IX.), (Rule 1.), (See § 10.), (Remark 3, p. 16.), (p. 4, Vol. 2.)

5. After headings and titles, and after dates and signatures to letters and other documents; also at the close of the address at the beginning of a letter, and after the last item in the direction on the envelope or package.

Punctuate the following:

1. Cleveland O December 1 1891 Philadelphia Pa Jan 15 1892

2. Smith Publishing Company No 12 North Prospect St Baltimore Md Dr A P Nicholls Medina Medina Co Ohio

3. I am Yours truly John Smith We are Respectfully Davis, Hunt & Co.

315. The **interrogation** is used at the close of direct questions:

Examples: Can you come to see us? Will they furnish them at that price?

Note 1.—An interrogation should be used after an interrogative phrase or clause that is repeated in the body of a declarative sentence; as, "The question, 'What do we live for?' is a solemn one." [This applies also to the mark of exclamation.]

Note 2.—Usually, the interrogation is equivalent to a period, but not always. Sometimes the interrogative clause occurs in the middle of a sentence, while at other times the sentence is composed of a series of questions, so that the interrogation may be equivalent to a comma or semicolon. It is important that the writer should know to what the interrogation is equivalent, as upon this depends whether the next word shall begin with a capital. The way to determine this is to change the questions into affirmative form. If, by doing this, the questions are resolved into independent statements, the interrogation is equivalent to a period; but if the expressions appear as a series of phrases or clauses, requiring the comma or semicolon for their punctuation, the interrogation is equivalent to one or the other of these marks, and the next word should not begin with a capital.

Examples: 1. Shall a man gain the favor of heaven by impiety? by falsehood? by murder? by theft? Affirmatively: A man can not obtain the favor of heaven by impiety, by falsehood, by murder, by theft. (Equivalent to commas.)

2. Who will heed his absurd claim? who will be influenced by his misrepresentations? Affirmatively: No one will heed his absurd claim; no one will be influenced by his misrepresentations. (Equivalent to the semicolon.)

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. When does he expect to return 2. Are you ready to begin the work 3. His question "How are we to prove it" was not out of place. 4. "Well what are you going to do about it" was his impertinent question 5. Is she fond of music of art of literature and is she self-reliant 6. Can he be so blind to his own interests so indifferent to the public welfare

316. The **exclamation** is used after words, phrases, or sentences expressing strong emotion.

Examples: O Absalom! O God! O my child! Alas! I am undone. Oh, where shall rest be found! Oh! Where shall rest be found? [See 323[4], *Note.*]

317. Quotation marks are used to show that the words enclosed by them are the exact words of another writer or speaker.

[For examples, see sentences for practice, under Rule 6 for the comma.]

Note 1.—When one quotation is contained within another it should be indicated by single marks. Should the contained quotation come at the end of the sentence, three apostrophes should be used after it.

Examples: He began by saying, "The old proverb, 'Well begun is half done,' contains an important truth." The speaker replied, "In the words of the immortal Lawrence, I would say, 'Don't give up the ship.'"

Note 2.—A period, colon, semicolon, or comma after the last word of a quotation is placed before the quotation marks. Other punctuation marks are placed before the quotation marks, if they are part of the quotation, and after them if they are used to punctuate the sentence.

SENTENCES FOR PRACTICE.

1. In his last moments he uttered these words I fall a sacrifice to wealth and luxury 2. Throwing herself in front of Marie Antoinette Elizabeth exclaimed

I am the queen 3. My friend said the excited driver you should turn to the right and give me half the road. 4. John B. Gough said Young man keep your record clean.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES TO BE PUNCTUATED.

1. The greatest truths are the simplest so are the greatest men. 2. The way to wealth is as plain as the way to market namely industry and frugality. 3. We must however pay some deference to the opinions of the wise however much they are contrary to our own. 4. If you would be revenged on your enemies let your life be blameless. 5. In giving let your object be the necessitous and the deserving your end their help. 6. Honesty is the best policy but he is not an honest man that acts on that principle. 7. No one is out of the reach of misfortune no one therefore should glory in his prosperity. 8. Do not insult a poor man his misery entitles him to pity. 9. Yes sir it has been attended to. 10. Vanity and ambition are both wrong the one displays itself in love of show the other in love of place. 11. Well many strange things have happened lately. 12. There is a joy in sorrow which none but the mourner can know. 13. Our own productions flatter us it is impossible not to be fond of them at the first moment. 14. We have in fine every facility for accomplishing the greatest amount of work. 15. Act well at the moment and you have performed a good action to all eternity. 16. Was that wonderful instrument the hand made to be idle? 17. Character is a mirror which reflects in after life the images first presented to it. 18. We two gentlemen are interested in an early settlement of this question and from our point of view it cannot be settled too soon. 19. Newton the great mathematician was very modest. 20. To speak candidly I do not understand the subject. 21. A boy educated at home meets many disappointments on coming into the world. 22. Do not squander *time* for that is the stuff that life is made of. 23. Plutarch truly observes no man can be both accuser and judge. 24. Good manners are not for state occasions but the natural garment for every day. 25. John Quincy Adams's last words were This is the end of life. 26. No one is out of the reach of misfortune no one therefore should glory in his prosperity. 27. Nature is contented with little grace with less. 28. The population of the city of Cleveland in 1810 was 57 in 1850 17034 in 1890 261708. 29. Vice is infamous though in a prince virtue honorable though in a peasant. 30. These three things you will never repent 1. Rising early to business 2. Learning good things 3. Obliging good men.

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITING AND PRINTING.

318. The **apostrophe** is used—

1. To mark the omission of a letter or syllable; as, o'er, ne'er, 'tis, they'll.
2. To mark the omission of the century in dates; as, '89, '92.
3. With the *s* to indicate the plural of a letter, figure, or sign. [See 131.]

4. With the *s* to indicate the possessive form of all nouns, excepting plurals that end in *s*. [See 135.] The apostrophe should not be used with the possessive pronouns *his*, *ours*, *yours*, *its*, etc.

319. The **hyphen** is used between the parts of compound words, and at the end of a line to indicate that a word is divided.

It is not always easy to decide whether the hyphen should be used to indicate the compounding of two words. The following directions are abridged from an article written by a practical printer, and published in the *National Educator* :

1. When two nouns come together and the second one implies the act of containing the first, a hyphen is used to connect them; thus, wood-box, paper-box, glass-box, ice-house; when, however, the first noun indicates the material of which the second is made, no hyphen should be used; as, wood box, paper box, glass box, ice house. Notice the difference between *wood-box* and *wood box*, etc.

2. When two adjectives stand before a noun and the first one belongs rather to the second than to the noun itself, the hyphen should be used between the adjectives; as, red-haired boy, eight-day clocks, ten-cent toys, six-inch wheels. The omission of the hyphen from these words changes the meaning to a red boy with hair, eight clocks each running one day, ten toys each worth one cent, six wheels each one inch in size, etc.

3. Sometimes two words of the same part-of-speech are connected by the word *and*, the three forming an adjective; thus, up-and-down motion, cut-and-slash fury. If the two adjectives qualify the noun equally, no hyphen is necessary. If we speak of a shipping-case, for instance, we use a hyphen, and so in retailing-case; but if both words, "shipping and retailing," come before the word "case," no hyphen should be used; as, shipping and retailing case.

4. A participial adjective coming before a noun, indicating the general or habitual use of the noun, should have a hyphen; as, printing-press, sewing-machine. A printing press is a press which is just now printing, but a printing-press is used for printing in general, though at this instant it may be perfectly still. So with writing machine, writing-machine, &c. [See 65^{6} and 279^{8}.]

To the above may be added the following specific statements:

1. Two numerals expressing a compound number should be united by a hyphen; as, twenty-one, thirty-six, etc.

2. The word "fold," when annexed to a numeral of more than one syllable, is separated from it by a hyphen; as, twenty-fold, sixty-fold, etc., but if the numeral has but one syllable, no hyphen is used; as, twofold, fourfold.

3. When fractions are expressed in words instead of figures, a hyphen should separate the two parts; as, one-half, three-fourths, etc.

4. The words "half" and "quarter," when prefixed to a noun, should be separated from it by a hyphen; as, half-dollar, quarter-pound, etc.

5. Usually, though not always, when two words are compounded, and each one retains its original accent, a hyphen should be used; as, snow-shoe, All-wise, town-hall; but if the accent of one of the words is dropped, the hyphen should be omitted; as, railway, bookkeeper, typewriter.

In dividing words at the end of a line, care should be taken that the division is strictly according to syllables; that is, never write part of a syllable at the end of a line and the remainder at the beginning of the next line. Never place the first syllable of a word at the end of a line, when that syllable contains but one letter; neither should the last syllable, when it consists of but a single letter, be placed at the beginning of the next line. This last rule includes final syllables of two letters when one of the letters is silent; as, *burned*, *passed*.

WORDS FOR PRACTICE.

Write the following words and give reasons for using or not using the hyphen, as the case may be: coffee pot, type case, shell box, gold pen, silver casket, ten cent counters, two dollar hats, rosy cheeked girl, money drawer, hat box, hat rack, shaving soap, razor case, book case, well to do farmer, happy go lucky fellow, half hearted way, letter box, pen and ink copy, 60 cent gas, water pail, out of the way place, walking cane, fruit stand, cake stand, pocket book, letter carrier, short hand, good bye, open faced, in door, out put, out going, passer by, working men, step son, man of war, oat meal.

320. The **caret** is used to mark the omission of a letter, a word, or a number of words. The omitted part is generally written above and the caret shows where it should be inserted. Examples:

It was an omi s sion. I had just sent a telegram to him.

If it is not contrary to the rules of your firm, please ship the goods by express, subject to inspection.

Remark.—The examples above fully illustrate the use of the caret, but all short manuscripts should be *rewritten* to supply omissions.

321. Marks of ellipsis.—Sometimes a long dash (———), or a succession of stars (* * * * * * *), or of points (. . . . . .), are used to indicate the omission of a portion of a sentence or discourse. "Leaders" are a succession of dots, used to carry the eye to something printed at a greater or less distance to the right.

322. Marks of reference are such as the asterisk (*), the dagger (†), section (§), parallel lines (‖), etc., used to call attention to some note or remark in the margin, at the bottom of the page, or end of the chapter.

IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUATION.

The importance of correct punctuation is shown by the following illustrations:

John Quincy Adams once gained a lawsuit involving $50,000, the decision of which turned on the position of a comma.

The Tariff Act passed by the XLIId Congress provided that fruit-plants, and certain other commodities, should be admitted free of duty. In engrossing or printing the Act, a comma, instead of a hyphen, was inserted between fruit and plants, consequently, "all fruits," and "all plants" were put upon the "free list," and this mistake (if mistake it was) cost the United States about $2,000,000. A special Act of Congress was necessary to get rid of that comma.

Sometimes ludicrous mistakes occur by the misplacing or omission of punctuation marks.

A toast at a public dinner was, "Woman; without her, man would be a savage." The next day it appeared in print, "Woman, without her man, would be a savage."

Punctuate the following lines so as to make them express a fact:

Every lady in the land has twenty nails upon each hand
Five and twenty on hands and feet this is true without deceit.

AN EPITAPH—PUNCTUATE TO SUIT.

He is an old and experienced man in vice and wickedness he is never found opposing the words of iniquity he takes delight in the downfall of the neighbors he never rejoices in the prosperity of any of his fellow creatures he is always ready to assist in destroying the peace of society he takes no pleasure in serving the Lord he is uncommonly diligent in sowing discord among his friends and acquaintances he takes no pride in laboring to promote the cause of Christianity he has not been negligent in endeavoring to stigmatize all public teachers he makes no exertions to subdue his evil passions he strives hard to build up Satan's kingdom he lends no aid to the support of the gospel among the heathen he contributes largely to the evil adversary he pays no attention to good advice he gives great heed to the devil he will never go to heaven he must go where he will receive the just recompense of his reward.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

323. Capital letters should be used—

1. To begin every sentence and every line of poetry. [See pp. 96-8.]

2. To begin every quotation forming a sentence; as—

Pope says, "Hope dwells eternal in the human breast."

3. To begin all words denoting the Deity, and words meaning Heaven; as—

Remember thy Creator; Christ; Son of God; Providence; Paradise.

Note.—It is now customary to capitalize all personal pronouns referring to God or the Saviour; as, "Trust in Him and He will give you strength."

4. To write the pronoun I and the interjection O.

Note.—*O* should be used in direct address, and *oh* in expressions of pain, pleasure, surprise. The latter should not be capitalized unless it begins a sentence. [See 316, Examples.]

5. To begin all proper nouns. This rule includes—

(*a*) Names of persons, countries, cities, towns, and streets; as—

James A. Garfield; William E. Gladstone; Canada; Asia; Boston; Chicago; Main Street; Euclid Avenue.

(*b*) Geographical names of oceans, lakes, mountains, rivers, states, counties, and regions; as—

Atlantic Ocean; Lake Erie; Hudson River; Green Mountains; Indiana; Monroe County; Pacific Coast; the North of Africa; Southern Ohio.

Note 1.—The words *north*, *south*, *east*, and *west* are capitalized when used to refer to geographical divisions of the country; as, "The East depends upon the West for meats and breadstuffs." But when these words refer to points of the compass, they are not capitalized; as, "He lives *east* of here." "It happened four miles *north* of this place."

Note 2.—In geographical names, composed of proper and common nouns, such as "New York city," "Ohio river," only the first part should be capitalized, (unless the name is used in directing letters, etc.,) because it may be used alone. But in such names as "Jersey City," "White Mountains," both must begin with capitals, because both are parts of the name.

Note 3.—The words *state* and *territory*, when they refer to divisions of the United States, should be capitalized; as, "He is a resident of this State." "He was the first governor of Idaho Territory." [But not in "church and state," "state affairs," "state rights," "Mexico ceded a large territory (tract) to the United States." "They erected a house within their own territory."]

(*c*) Names of all organized bodies and companies; the names of newspapers, magazines, and other publications; as—

The Odd Fellows; The Cleveland Printing Company; Marine Band; Woman's Christian Temperance Union; The Daily News; The North American Review; The Youth's Companion.

6. To begin titles of honor or distinction, and the names of city, county, state, and national official bodies and departments of the government; as—

Gen'l Lew Wallace; Minister to Russia; City Council; Infirmary Directors; State Legislators; P. O. Department; Mayor; Sheriff; Governor; Justice of the Peace. [But not "a sheriff," "a governor," or "a justice of the peace," etc., unless placed just before the name; as, "Sheriff Ryan;" "Governor McKinley." Neither should the titles of officers of societies, railway companies, banks, etc., be capitalized, unless immediately preceding a name.]

7. To begin words used to indicate the Bible directly; as—

The Scriptures; Gospel of Luke, etc. [But not in "to preach the gospel," "scriptural doctrine," and so forth.]

8. To begin proper adjectives (87 *a*), the names of all religious sects, political parties, and adjectives derived from them; as—

The American people; Baptist; the Methodist church; the Republican party.

9. To begin names of things spoken of as persons, and of especially important things, events, or organized assemblies; as—

"Upon this, *Fancy* began to bestir herself;" Declaration of Independence; the Reformation; National Educational Association; the International Christian Endeavor Convention.

10. To begin the names of important buildings and localities;

The Public Library; the High School; [but not when spoken of in a general sense; as, "our high schools"] Central Market; the East End; the South Side (parts of a city); the Penitentiary. [But not jail, prison, or post-office, because commonly spoken of in a general sense.]

11. GENERAL.—In directing letters or other mail-matter, capitalize all words except prepositions, conjunctions, or articles, that do not begin a line. [This rule applies also to titles of books, essays, etc., though on the title-page of books the title is usually printed entirely in capitals.] It is allowable in writing sums of money, especially in the body of a check, draft, or note, to use capitals to begin all numerals; as, "One Thousand Four Hundred Seventy-five Dollars." However, this is largely a matter of taste, and even among bankers the usage is not uniform, some capitalizing only the first word. In writing advertisements, it is allowable and customary to capitalize all important words.

APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS.*

324. **Abhorrence** *of* [not *for*]. **Abhorrent** *to*. You have an abhorrence *of* a thing, and you may say it is abhorrent *to* you.

Abound *with*, *in*. A country abounds *with* game, and so we say that game abounds *in* that country.

Accommodate *to*, *with*. We accommodate ourselves *to* circumstances, or we accommodate others *with* things we have.

Accompany–ied *by*, *with*. One person is accompanied *by* another, or he is in company *with* another. One thing is accompanied *with* another.

[In] **accordance** *with* [not *to*]. **Accusation** *of*, *against*.

Accused *of* [not *for*], *by*. A person is accused *of* doing a thing *by* someone who brings the accusation *against* him.

Acquaint–ed *of*, *with*. We acquaint ('inform') a person *of* the facts concerning a matter, after which he is acquainted *with* the facts.

Acquit *of* [not *from*]. A man is acquitted ('judged not guilty') *of* the charges brought against him.

Adapted *to*, *for*, *from*. A person or thing may be adapted *to* a certain work or a thing is adapted *for* a certain purpose. A piece is adapted *from* an author.

Adequate *to* [not *for*]. A man's resources are, or are not, adequate ('equal') *to* the demand upon them.

Admission *to* an entertainment; *of* guilt. **Admit** *to*, *into* [not *of*]. Your ticket will admit you *to* the concert; present it at the door and you will be admitted *into* the room where the concert is to be held.

Advantage *of*, *over*. One man takes advantage *of* a favorable opportunity to get the advantage *of*, or to gain an advantage *over* another.

Admonish *of*, *against*. We admonish ('remind') a person *of* his duty, or we may admonish ('warn') him *against* doing a thing.

Advance–d *from*, *to* a certain place; *to within* a certain line or distance, *into*, or *in* a given territory. [See *In* for *into*, 262[7], page 122.]

Advocate *of*, *for*, also *with*. A man may be an advocate *of* or *for* a certain measure. *With* is used in the Scriptures. [See 1 John, 11 : 2.]

***To the Teacher.**—In this list, the prepositions given after a word are not in all cases the only ones that may be used with it.

By may be used after almost any verb to introduce an adverbial phrase expressing the method or the agency by which a thing is done, especially before an active participle; as, for instance, "He accommodated me *by* lending me his watch." [See *Accused*, above; also *Discriminate*, p. 182.] *For* also may be used after a great many verbs to introduce adverbial phrases of *purpose*, or reason. [For example, see *Adapted*.]

The aim has been to give those prepositions that are most likely to be misused. Nearly all of these have been exemplified, though the examples are necessarily brief. To make this list of the greatest possible benefit to the student, he should be required to construct sentences in which these words and their prepositions are used correctly.

325. **Agree** *with*, *in*, *to*, *on*, *upon*, or *among*. Persons agree *with* each other *in* matters of opinion, and one story or report agrees *with* another. We agree *to* proposals made by others, and thus form contracts. Persons agree *on* or *upon* a matter, and several persons may agree *among* themselves.

Allied *to*, *with*. The lesser is allied to the greater, or one thing is allied ('related') *to* another by a similarity or resemblance. Two equals are allied ('connected') *with* each other. [See *Connect.*]

Alter *from* [not *to*, except the infinitive].

Ambitious *of*, or *after*. **Amuse** *with*, *at*, or *in*.

Angry *with* persons; *at* things.

Apply *to*, *at*, *for*; **application** *by*, *through*. We apply *to* a person; *at* [not *to*] a place; *for* help or information. We apply *in* person, or make the application *by* letter or *through* another person.

Appropriate *to* [not *for*].

Arrive *at*, *in*, *from*. A man arrives *in* this country *from* London and the ship in which he comes arrives *at* New York, *at* such a time. A person arrives *at* the Union Station *in* Chicago. [See *Meet.*]

Ask something *of*; *for*, a thing; *after* someone or something we wish to hear about.

Astonished *at*, *by* [not *with*]. **Averse** *to*—infinitive—[not *from*].

Attend-ed *by*, *with*, *to*, *on*, or *upon*. One person is attended *by* another. An undertaking is attended *with* many difficulties. A servant attends *to* his duties by attending *on* or *upon* his master.

Banish *from* society; *out of* a country.

Believe *in*, *on*. "To believe *in* is to hold as an object of faith. To believe *on* is to rest upon with full confidence."—*Campbell.* [See John XIV: 1; Acts XIV: 23.]

Bump *against* [not *on*]. One should say, "I bumped my head *against* the post," not *on* the post.

Burn-ed [*up* or *down*] *into*. We may say that 'the house burnt *up*,' or 'burnt *down*,' but in this sense the words 'up' and 'down' are adverbs. "*Up* and *down* are intensive in the sense of wholly—completely."—*Campbell.* The letters were burned *into* the wood.

Capacity *for*, *of*. We say of a person that he has a capacity *for* learning; but of a vessel that it has a capacity *of* so much, according to some unit of measurement, usually a ton.

Call *at*, *on*, *in*, *after*. We call at a house to see a friend, and then we say that we have called *on* [not *upon*] him. We call a thing *in* question, and we call ('name') a child *after* some person.

Careful *of*, *in*, *about*. We should be careful *of* that which is left in our charge, and careful *in* or *about* our words and deeds.

Charge *for*, *with*, *to*, *in*, *upon*. A merchant charges you *for* goods you buy. If on credit, he may afterwards tell you that you are charged *with* a certain amount, or that certain items were charged *to* you *in* your account. The enemy charged *upon* us.

Coincide *with* [not *to*]. **Collide** *with* [not *against*].

Combine *with, for, into* [not *together*]. Persons combine *with* each other *for* a purpose. Several things are combined *into* one.

Communicate *to, with.* We communicate information or news *to* another, *by* mail or other means of communication. If there is a correspondence or talking back and forth between us and the other person, we are said to communicate *with* him.

Compare *with, in, to*; **comparison** *with, between.* One thing is compared *with* another *in* quality, or *to* another for the sake of illustration. We draw comparisons *between* things to show their likeness or unlikeness.

Complain *to, of.* **Complaint** *of, against.*

Comply-iance *with* [not *to*]. We comply *with* the request of another We do a thing *in* compliance *with* the order or request of another.

Concerned *at, for, with, in, about.* A person may be concerned *at* a report; *for* the safety of someone; *with* another person *in* a matter, or *in* the happiness of others; *about* something.

Concur *with, in.* Persons concur *with* each other *in* an opinion.

Condole *with, for,* or *over.* You should condole *with* a friend *for* or *over* his loss.

Confer *with,* persons; *upon,* or *about* matters.

Conform *to,* or *with.* One thing is made to conform ('agree' or 'fit') *to* another. A man conforms himself *to,* or *with* circumstances.

Connect *with, to.* One thing is connected *with* another of equal rank or importance; but *to* another of greater importance.

Consist *of, in.* A material thing consists *of* the parts of which it is composed. An invisible object of thought, as *life,* a *virtue,* etc., consists *in* being, or doing so and so; as, "True happiness consists *in* making others happy."

Consistent *in, with.* A man is consistent *in* a matter, or we may say, his life is not consistent *with* his profession.

> "Show me the man that hath in him the power,
> To act consistent *with* himself an hour."—*Pope.*

Contend *with, against, for.* We contend *with* people, or *with* difficulties *against* an obstacle, *for* something we want, or *for* what we believe is right.

Contradictory *to* [not *of*]. **Contrary** *to* [not *from* nor *than*].

Contrast *with, to, between.* We contrast one thing *with* another of the same kind. One thing presents a contrast *to* another. We notice the contrast ('difference') *between* two things.

Controversy *with, between, about* [not *over*]. One person has a controversy *with* another; there is a controversy *between* them, and the controversy is *about* [not *over*] a certain matter.

Convenient *to, for.* **Convert** *to, into.* **Convict** *of* [not *for*].

Copy *after, from, out of.* We copy *after* persons, *from* a thing, *out of* a book.

326. Correspond *with, to.* Persons correspond *with* each other; things correspond ('agree,' 'fit,' or 'answer') *to* others.

Couple *with, to, in* [see *Connect*]; also, *in* a certain way.

[In] danger *of, from.* A man is in danger of receiving harm from that which threatens, or there may be danger *of* his doing thus and so; but he is in danger *from* [not *of*] the object that threatens to harm him; as, to be in danger *from* falling timbers.

Date *from, at.* We date a letter *from* a place *at* a certain time.

Deal *with, in, by.* We deal ('trade') *with* a man who deals *in* the goods we want. We should deal *by* or *with* others as we would be dealt by.

Defend *from, against.* A person defends ('protects') himself or another *from* that which threatens to attack; or he defends himself or helps to defend another *against* that which has already attacked.

Demand *of, from.* We demand *of* a person information or something that is invisible; but we demand *from* him a thing (visible object) which he has, and to which we claim a right; as, to demand payment *of* a man, or to demand *from* him money in payment of his bill.

Depend *on* or *upon*, or **depend** ('hang') from. **Deprive** *of* [not *from*].

Desire *of, for.* We may speak of the desire *of* a man, and say he has a desire *for* a certain thing; but we should not say that his desire *of* wealth led him to do a thing.

Die *of, for, from;* **death** *by, at.* A person dies *of* [not *from*] a disease, or *from* the effects of an injury; or he may meet death *by* accident, as by fire, or *at* the hands of an assassin. A man may sometimes die *for* the right, or *for* the object of his love. [See Rom. v: 6–8.] One person may die *with* another, but never *with* a disease; the disease doesn't die.

Differ *from, among, about, concerning;* also *with.* Persons or things differ *from* each other. Several persons differ *among* themselves *about*, or *concerning* a matter. Two persons may differ ('contend,' or 'quarrel') *with* each other.

Difference *with* persons; *between* things compared [not *in*].

Different-ly *from* [not *to* nor *than*].

Disappointed *of, in.* We are disappointed *of* something we have expected but failed to get. We are disappointed *in* what we get if it does not meet our expectation.

Discriminate *between, from.* We discriminate *between* two things by discriminating one *from* the other.

Disgusted *with, at, by.* We are disgusted *with* someone or something, but *at* or *by* something that has been done.

Dislike *to, of* [not *for*]. **Dissent** *from* [not *to*].

Distinguish-ed *between, from, by, for, from among.* We distinguish *between* two things, or we distinguish one thing *from* another by certain characteristics. A man may be distinguished *for* certain traits or deeds. *From among* a large number of things, we distinguish those of a certain kind.

Divide *between* two; *among* more than two; *into* parts.

Embark *in* [not *on*], *at*, *for*. **Encroach** *on* or *upon*.

Engage *in*, *with*, *to*. **Enrage** *with*, *at*, *against*. [See *Angry*.]

Enter-ed *in*, *into*, *on*, or *upon*. We enter ('record') a thing *in* a book, *on*, *upon*, or *at* a certain page. We enter *into* agreements with persons. [See *Put*.]

Entertain-ed *by*, *with*. We are entertained *by* a person, or *with* that which is provided for our entertainment.

Entrance *into*. [See *Put*.] **Envious** *of*, *at*, *against*.

Equal *to*; also *with*. A thing or combination of things is equal *to* so much. [See *Adequate*. For *with*, see John v: 18.]

Exhausted *by*, *with*. We become exhausted *with* fatigue, *by* the effort or work which produces the fatigue.

Expect *of*, *from*. We expect certain conduct or action *of* a person, or we expect some object, as a present, *from* another.

Expert *in* knowledge; *at* work. When we have reference more particularly to a man's knowledge of a subject, a science, or an art, we should say, "He is expert *in* it," but when referring to his work, we should say, "He is expert *at* it."

Fall *under*, *from*, *into*, *on*, or *upon*, *to*, *among*. A thing may fall ('come') *under* our notice; *from* that which holds or supports it, *into* something that receives it. A nut falls *to* the ground, perhaps *among* the leaves. A man falls *on* or *upon* the ice [262^{9}], *in* or *into* bad company. [262^{7}.]

Familiar *to*, *with*. Persons and objects are familiar *to* us, and we are familiar *with* them.

Favorable *for*, *to*. The circumstances may be favorable *for* an undertaking, and so we are favorable ('disposed to favor or encourage') *to* it.

Favorite *of*, *with*. **Followed** *by* [not *with*].

Form-ed *of*, *from*. We form a thing *of* that which is different from it, or we form it *from* something of the same kind. "The arch was formed ('made') *of* heavy timbers." "Our team was formed ('made up') *from* the other two."

Free *from*, *in*, *with*. We should be free *from* prejudice, or anything that is wrong. We should not be too free *with* our money, or too free *in* expressing our opinions.

Friendly *to*, *toward*, a person or project; *with*, as, "Persons are friendly *with* each other."

Frightened *at* an object, *by* a report, news, etc.

Frown *at*, *on*, or *upon*. [See *Smile*.]

Good *at*, *for*. "They are generally good *at* flattering who are good *for* nothing else."—*Southey*.

Graduate-s-d *at*, *of*, *in*, *by* [not *from*]. Persons graduate *at* a place, *in* a certain class; and they are then graduates *of* the school *by* which they were graduated or given their degrees. Persons are not graduated *from* a school.

Graft *into*, *on*, or *upon*. Whether we should say graft *into*, *on*, or *upon*, depends upon the mode of grafting. [See Webster on *grafting*.]

327. Grateful *to* a person; *for* a favor.

Grieve *at*, that which causes our grief; *for* that which we have lost.

Guilty *of* [not *for*]. **Healed** *of* [not *from*]. **Hinder** *from* [not *to*].

Hold *of*, *to*, *on*, or *upon*; also *with*.

Hunger *for* food; *after* knowledge. [See *Thirst.*]

Illustrated *by* an artist; *with*, or *by* wood-cuts, etc.

Impatient *with* persons; *at* that which annoys; *for* something to arrive; *under* misfortune, disappointment, or wrongs.

Impress-ed *on*, or *upon*, *with*. A thought is impressed *on*, or *upon* our minds, or we are impressed *with* the importance of something.

Incensed *with*, *at* [see *Angry*], *against* the person, if the anger leads to action. Generally, *against* with these words conveys the idea of a third person who is stirring up the angry one.

Incentive *to* [not *for*]. **Infer** *from* [not *by*].

Incorporate-d *into*, *with*. A thing is incorporated ('taken') *into* something else, or several persons or things are incorporated *into* one body. One thing is sometimes incorporated ('combined') *with* another.

Indifferent *to* [not *of*]. **Indispensable** *to* [not *for*].

Indulge (intrans.) *in* something habitual (trans.); *with* something to please.

Influence [noun] *with*, *over*, *in*, *on*. We may have some influence *with* a person, without having absolute influence *over* him. A man may have an influence *in* a community and what he does may have an influence *on* the lives of others; that is, he influences [verb] others *to do* or *to be*.

Inform-ation *of*, *about*, *concerning*. [See *Acquaint.*]

Inquire *of*, *for*, *after*, *about*, *concerning*, and sometimes *in*. [See Acts IX: 11.]

Insensible *to* that which affects, *of* that which is going on.

Inseparable *from* [not *to*].

Insert-ed-ion *in*, *into*. One thing is inserted *in* another that is different, but *into* that which is of the same kind. Thus we insert an advertisement *in* the paper, or we insert one piece of wood *into* another.

Insight *into* [not *of*]. **Inspection** *of*, *over* [not *into*].

Interfere-d *with* plans, claims, etc., *in* a matter [not *between*].

Interspersed *among*, *through*, *with* [not *by*].

Introduced *to;* as, a speaker *to* an audience, or one person *to* another; *into* that which is different; as, to introduce a man *into* society; *in* a place; as to introduce a bill *in* Congress. The gentleman should be introduced *to* the lady.

Intrust *to*, *with*. We intrust (or entrust) something *to* a *person* when we *entrust* or trust the person *with* it.

Invest *in*, *with*. [Different meanings of "invest."] We invest money *in* a thing for profit; we invest ('clothe') a person *with* authority.

Involved *in* [not *with*]. **Irritated** *by, at, against.* [See *Angry.*]

Join *to* something greater; *with* something equal. [See *Connect.*]

Killed *by* an enemy, or *by* an accident; *with* a sword, a pistol shot, etc.

Lean *against* a wall, a tree, and so forth; *on* or *upon* a staff or other support; *to* or *toward* a thing.

Listen *for* a sound expected; *to* a sound heard [not *at*].

Live *at* a definite place, as a small city or village, *by* a road, street, stream, and so forth, or *on* one side or the other of the same; *in* a country, a certain part of the country, or a large city.

Look *for* a thing expected, or *for* something lost; *after* what is entrusted to one's care; *into* that which we wish to learn.

Make *of, from, out of, with, for.*

Marry-ied. The bride is married *to* the bridegroom—the woman *to* the man. They may marry *with* ceremony, *amid* pomp. [See 412.]

Martyr *for* a cause or principle; *to* the malice of those who put the martyr to death.

Mastery *over* that which is controlled; *of* a subject of thought.

Matter *with* [not *of*]. **Mindful** *of* [not *for*]. **Mixed** *with, in.*

Model *after* a pattern, *on* a plan. **Mourn** *over* a loss; *for* a friend.

Name *after, from* [not *for*]. A person is named *after* another, or *from* some circumstance, or happening.

Necessary *to, for.* **Necessity** *for, of.* **Need** (*n.*) *of* [not *for*].

Object (*v.*) *to.* **Objection** *to, against.* **Obtain** *of, from.*

Oblivious *of* [not *to*]. **Occasion** (*n.*) *of, for* [not *to*]. **Occupy** *by, with, in.*

Offense *against* [not *to*]. **Offended** *at, by, with.* [See *Angry.*]

Opportunity *for.* [Sometimes *of*, but better the infinitive.]

Opposite [*to* superfluous]. **Opposition** *to* [not *against*].

Order *from, through.* We order goods *from* a certain place, and so we may order them *from* [not *of*] or *through* a firm or person.

Originate *in, with, from* [not *of*]. **Overwhelm** *by, with, in.*

Parallel *with, to.* A line *runs* parallel *with* another, or *one* line *is* parallel *to* another; but to say that two lines are parallel *to* each other is superfluous.

Part *from, with.* To part *from* is to leave; to part *with* is to give up; thus, to part *from* a friend is not the same as to part *with* him.

Partake *of;* that is, 'to take part of.' [See *Partake*, page 142.]

Patient *with* those with whom we deal; *toward* others; *under* trying circumstances.

Peculiar *to* [not *from*]. **Penetrate** *to, into, within.* [See *Advance.*]

Perish *of, by, with.* [See *Die,—death.*]

Pine (or **repine**) *at* what is; *for* what is not.

328. **Pleased** *with, at.* "His kind heart will be pleased *with* my success." "I was pleased *at* the effect which I produced."—*Macaulay.*

Possessed *of* goods; *with* or *by* a notion or spirit. [See Acts XVI: 16.]

Prefer *to, above, before.* **Preferable** *to* [not *than*].

Preference *to, before, over, above, for.* **Prejudice** *against* [not *to* nor *for*].

Present *to, with.* We present a thing *to* a person, a person *with* something.

Preside *at* a meeting; *over* an assembly.

Prevail *on, upon, with, over, against.* We prevail *on, upon,* or *with* ('persuade') persons. We prevail *over* (or *against*) an obstacle or an enemy.

Prevent [from]; **preventive,** *against.* *From* after *prevent* is really superfluous; thus, "to prevent him from doing it," means "to prevent his doing it." We use preventives *against* evils.

Prohibit [from]. *From* generally superfluous. [See *Prevent.*]

Protect *from, against.* [See *Defend.*]

Provide *with* things needed; *against* an emergency or a danger.

Punished *with* some kind of punishment; *for* misconduct.

Purge *of* but better *from.* [See Hebrews IX: 14; 2 Peter XVI: 8.]

[In] **Pursuance** *of* [not *to*]. **Pursuant** *to.*

Put *into, in.* [See *In* for *into*, 262[7].] "With reference to real entrance, use *into;* as, to put meal *into* a bag, money *into* one's pocket, *into* one's hand. With reference to figurative (generally with abstract nouns), *in* is mostly used; as, to put *in* action, *in* effect, *in* execution, *in* order, *in* a passion; also, *in* type, *in* print."—*Campbell.*

Read *in, from, out of, to.* We read *in* a book for ourselves, *from* (or *out of*) the book *for* (or *to*) others.

Receive *from* [not *of*]. **Recite** *from, out of.* [See *Read.*]

Reconcile-d *to* ('to make peace'); *with* ('to make consistent')—See Matthew V: 24.

Reduce *to* a certain state or condition; *under* subjection.

[In] **Reference** *to* [not *of*].

Regard *for* [*in* or *with*]; regard *to* [but not *in* regard *of*].

Rejoice *at* what takes place; *with* persons; *in* personal qualities.

Rely *on* or *upon* [not *in*]. **Remedy** *for* [but "preventive" against].

Remonstrate *with* persons, *against* proceedings.

Repent *of* [not *for*]. **Reproach** *with, for.* **Resemblance** *to* [not *with*].

Respect *for, to* [not *in*]. We have respect *for* person. We speak *in* respect *to* (or with respect *to*) a matter. [See *Regard.*]

Reward-ed *for, with.* "Montague was rewarded *by* the king *for* his services *with* the place of Chancellor."—*Campbell.*

Search *for* (or *after*) a person or something lost; *out* the truth; also search ('inquire') *into* particulars.

Secure *from, against.* We secure a thing *from* a person, but persons or things are made secure *against* attack or calamity. "My fortune is tolerably secure *against* any but a great public calamity."—*Macaulay.*

Seek. [See *Search.*] **Seized** *by* a person or an enemy; *with* sickness.

Sell *for* a price; *by* subscription, or *by* [not *at*] auction.

Share *in, of, with.* We share ('take part') *in* a matter; receive a share of a thing; or share ('divide') it *with* someone else.

Sick *of* an undertaking—(figurative); *with* a disease, as a fever. Formerly *of.* [See Mark 1:30.]

Similar *to* [not *with*]. **Similarity** *to, between, of* [not *with*].

Smile *at* that which amuses; *on* (or *upon*) persons.

Speak *to* a person or an audience; *with* a person, *on* (or *upon*) or *about* a matter.

Strive *with* or *against* a person or a thing that opposes; *for* that which is to be obtained.

Suited *with, to.* Persons are suited *with* things; things, *to* purposes.

Surprised *at, by,* or *with.* **Surround-ed** *by* or *with.* [*By* is used after a passive verb-phrase; *with,* when the verb has an object.]

Sympathy—Sympathize *with, for, between, among.* We sympathize *with* a man in his misfortune or distress, and so we have sympathy ('pity') *for* a person who has been unfortunate. When two are in sympathy *with* each other, there is sympathy *between* them. Several persons may have sympathy *among* themselves.

Talk *to* a person or an audience; *of* or *about* things; *with* persons who talk *with* us *over* (or *about*) a matter.

Thirst *for* something to drink; *after* knowledge. **Trust** *to, in* [not *on*].

[In] **Unison** *with* [not *to*]; [At] **Variance** *with* [not *to*].

Vexed *with* persons; *at* what has happened.

View *of, to. In* view *of,* and *with* a view *to;* also *with* the view *of.*

Wait *for* that which is coming; **wait** ('call') *on* a person.

Want *of* (from), *with.* We may want something *of* ('from') a person, or we may be in want *of* something needful.

Weary *of, with, in.* We may become weary *of* (or *with*) that which causes much exertion; but we should never be "weary *in* well doing."—Gal. VI: 9.

Write *from* a place, *from* choice, *from* necessity; *down* what we hear; write (or 'fill') *out* a check or an agreement.

Yoked *with* a similar or equal thing; *to* something different or greater. [See *Connect*]; also *together with.* [See 2 Cor. VI: 14.]

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

329. [Those marked with an *r* have also the regular form.]

Present T.	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*	*Present T.*	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*
Abide	abode	abode	Clothe	clad, *r*	clad, *r*
Arise	arose	arisen	Come	came	come
Awake	awoke, *r*	awaked	Cost	cost	cost
Be *or* am	was	been	Creep	crept	crept
Bear	bore	borne	Crow	crew, *r*	crowed
Beat	beat	beaten	Cut	cut	cut
Begin	began	begun	Dare	durst, *r*	dared
Bend	bent, *r*	bent, *r*	Deal	dealt, *r*	dealt, *r*
Bereave	bereft, *r*	bereft, *r*	Dig	dug, *r*	dug, *r*
Beseech	besought	besought	Dive	dove, *r*	dived
Bet	bet	bet	Do	did	done
Bless	blest, *r*	blest, *r*	Draw	drew	drawn
Bid	bid *or* bade	bid [den]	Dream	dreamt, *r*	dreamt, *r*
Bind	bound	bound	Dress	drest, *r*	drest, *r*
Bite	bit	bit [ten]	Drink	drank	drunk
Bleed	bled	bled	Drive	drove	driven
Blend	blent, *r*	blent, *r*	Dwell	dwelt, *r*	dwelt, *r*
Blow	blew	blown	Eat	ate	eaten
Break	broke	broken	Fall	fell	fallen
Breed	bred	bred	Feed	fed	fed
Bring	brought	brought	Feel	felt	felt
Build	built, *r*	built, *r*	Fight	fought	fought
Burn	burnt, *r*	burnt, *r*	Find	found	found
Burst	burst	burst	Flee	fled	fled
Buy	bought	bought	Fling	flung	flung
Cast	cast	cast	Fly	flew	flown
Catch	caught	caught	Forget	forgot	forgotten
Chide	chid	chid [den]	Forgive	forgave	forgiven
Choose	chose	chosen	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Cleave	cleft, *r* / clove	cleft, *r* / cloven	Freeze	froze	frozen
			Get	got	got [ten]
Cling	clung	clung	Gild	gilt, *r*	gilt, *r*

Note 1.—Of the twenty-five verbs that have the same form in the past as in the present, *knit*, *quit*, *whet*, and *sweat*, are sometimes given the regular ending, *ed*. The word *spit* formerly had *spat* for its past form. *Read* changes the vowel sound for its past.

Note 2.—Several verbs, usually regular, are often given an irregular form ending with *t*. The principal ones are: (*a*) A few ending in *ss*; as, *bless*, *blest*, or *blessed*; (*b*) Others ending with *l*, *n*, or *p*; as, *spell*, *learn*, *leap*; (*c*) Some ending in *d* following *l*, *n*, or *r*; as, *build*, *bend*, *gird*. Verbs which have both regular and irregular forms are said to be "redundant."

Present T.	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*	*Present T.*	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*
Gird	girt, *r*	girt, *r*	Mistake	mistook	mistaken
Give	gave	given	Mow	mowed	mown, *r*
Go	went	gone	Pay	paid	paid
Grave	graved	graven, *r*	Plead	pled, *r*	pled, *r*
Grind	ground	ground	Put	put	put
Grow	grew	grown	Quit	quit, *r*	quit, *r*
Hang	hung, *r*	hung, *r*	Rap	rapt, *r*	rapt, *r*
Have	had	had	Read	read	read
Hear	heard	heard	Rend	rent	rent
Heave	hove, *r*	hoven, *r*	Rid	rid	rid
Hew	hewed	hewn, *r*	Ride	rode	ridden
Hide	hid	hidden	Ring	rang	rung
Hit	hit	hit	Rise	rose	risen
Hold	held	held	Rive	rived	riven, *r*
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Run	ran	run
Keep	kept	kept	Saw	sawed	sawn, *r*
Kneel	knelt, *r*	knelt, *r*	Say	said	said
Knit	knit, *r*	knit, *r*	See	saw	seen
Know	knew	known	Seek	sought	sought
Lade	laded	laden, *r*	Seethe	sod, *r*	sodden, *r*
Lay	laid	laid	Sell	sold	sold
Lead	led	led	Send	sent	sent
Leave	left	left	Set	set	set
Lean	leant, *r*	leant, *r*	Shake	shook	shaken
Leap	leapt, *r*	leapt, *r*	Shape	shaped	shapen, *r*
Learn	learnt, *r*	learnt, *r*	Shear	sheared	shorn, *r*
Lend	lent	lent	Shave	shaved	shaven, *r*
Let	let	let	Shed	shed	shed
Lie	lay	lain	Shine	shone, *r*	shone, *r*
Light	lit, *r*	lit, *r*	Shoe	shod	shod
Lose	lost	lost	Shoot	shot	shot
Make	made	made	Show	showed	shown, *r*
Mean	meant	meant	Shrink	shrank	shrunk [en]
Meet	met	met	Shred	shred	shred

Note 3.—*Hang*, meaning to kill, is regular; as, "They *hanged* the murderer."

Note 4.—Verbs whose perfect participles are formed by adding *n* or *en* to the present or past forms or to neither, are called *strong verbs*, and are said to belong to the "old" or "strong" conjugation in contradistinction to the "weak" or "new" conjugation. To the latter belong all regular verbs and all irregular verbs except those that change the vowel but take no added ending for the past form. These last belong to the *strong* conjugation.

Examples of "strong" conjugation: *Arise, drive, fly, sing, blow, forget.*

Examples of "weak" conjugation: *Bend, bring, feel, lean, leap.*

Remark.—Some verbs belong to both conjugations; as, *hew, grave, shave.*

A few strong verbs double the final consonant in taking the suffix *en;* as, *bid, hide, write.*

Present T.	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*	*Present T.*	*Past T.*	*Perfect Part.*
Shut	shut	shut	Stride	strode	stridden
Sing	sang	sung	String	strung	strung
Sink	sank	sunk	Strive	strove	striven
Sit	sat	sat	Strew	strewed	strewn, *r*
Slay	slew	slain	Swear	swore	sworn
Sleep	slept	slept	Sweat	sweat, *r*	sweat, *r*
Slide	slid	slid [den]	Sweep	swept	swept
Sling	slung	slung	Swell	swelled	swollen, *r*
Slink	slunk	slunk	Swim	swam	swum
Slit	slit	slit	Swing	swung	swung
Smell	smelt, *r*	smelt, *r*	Take	took	taken
Smite	smote	smitten	Teach	taught	taught
Sow	sowed	sown, *r*	Tear	tore	torn
Speak	spoke	spoken	Tell	told	told
Speed	sped	sped	Think	thought	thought
Spell	spelt, *r*	spelt, *r*	Thrive	throve, *r*	thriven, *r*
Spend	spent	spent	Throw	threw	thrown
Spill	spilt, *r*	spilt, *r*	Thrust	thrust	thrust
Spin	spun	spun	Tread	trod	trod [den]
Spit	spit	spit	Wake	woke, *r*	woke, *r*
Split	split	split	Wax	waxed	waxen, *r*
Spoil	spoilt, *r*	spoilt, *r*	Wear	wore	worn
Spread	spread	spread	Weave	wove	woven
Spring	sprang	sprung	Wed	wed, *r*	wed, *r*
Stand	stood	stood	Weep	wept	wept
Stave	stove, *r*	stove, *r*	Wet	wet, *r*	wet, *r*
Steal	stole	stolen	Whet	whet, *r*	whet, *r*
Stick	stuck	stuck	Win	won	won
Sting	stung	stung	Wind	wound	wound
Stink	stunk	stunk	Work	wrought, *r*	wrought, *r*
Strike	struck	struck / stricken	Wring	wrung	wrung
			Write	wrote	written

330. Defective Verbs.—The following irregular verbs are lacking (deficient) in one or more of their principal parts (163). None of them have a passive participle form. Such verbs are called "defective."

Present.	*Past.*	*Present.*	*Past.*
Begone	.....	ought	.....
Beware	.....	.....	quoth
Can	could	*Future*	
May	might	shall	should
Must	.....	will	would

APPENDIX

OF

NOTES, QUOTATIONS, AND COMMENTS.

---

331. Parts of Speech (5*).—It should be distinctly understood, at the very outstart of our study of the English language, that the classifying of words into "parts of speech" is for the sake of convenience in considering their functions in the unit of speech—the sentence; and that owing to the flexibility of our language, any attempt at defining these classes of words must be more or less unsatisfactory, especially to an inquiring mind.

To use the statement made by Dr. Abbott, "The fundamental principle of English grammar may be stated with little exaggeration as being this, that any word may be used as any part of speech."

(*a*) In one of his trenchant articles on English "grammar," so called, Mr. Richard Grant White says: "One trait of the English language is the great flexibility, not to say looseness, of its structure in regard to what are called the parts of speech. In this respect it is as in others, nearly unique among the languages of the civilized world. English may almost be said to have no distinctive parts of speech. This is a strong putting of the case, I admit; but it expresses the truth more nearly than it could be expressed without a long and carefully-elaborated statement. The principal parts of speech are the noun, the verb, the adjective, and that peculiar sort of word which by grammarians has been strangely called the pronoun. . . . Now, the fact is that these principal parts of speech are so interchangeable in our mother tongue that they can hardly be said to be distinguished from each other.

In English, almost any simple noun may be used as a verb without change in its form; and in like manner almost any verb may be used as a noun. Nouns are used as adjectives, and adjectives as nouns. Pronouns may be used, and are used, as nouns, as adjectives, and even as verbs. We wire a message, we table a resolution, we foot our way home, a hunter trees a bear, a broker bears stock or bulls it, the merchant ships his goods, the hypocrite cloaks his sins with acted falsehood, the invalid suns himself, the east wind clouds the sky.

We thus constantly use, and for centuries have used, as verbs, words which

* Figures in parenthesis refer to paragraphs.

originally were nouns. On the other hand, we speak of the run of a ship of a great haul of fish, of a horse coming in on the jump, of a man being on the go, of a great rush of people, of the push of business, of the thrust of the rafters of a house, of the spring and fall, and so on, using verbs as nouns. We can not speak of the right and the wrong, the good and the bad, the strong and the weak, without using adjectives as nouns; for the pretense of the elder grammarians that a qualified noun is understood in these cases is unfounded, and was made only for the sake of keeping up the make-believe of grammar.

And as to using nouns as adjectives, we cannot speak of a gold watch, an iron bar, a bar-room, a carpet-bag, a carpet knight, a brick house, a stone bridge, or a windmill, without doing that. It is the commonest conversion of parts of speech. We could hardly communicate in English without it. When we say a brew-house, a wash-house, or a turn-stile, we use verbs as adjectives. As to pronouns, 'he' and 'she' are constantly used as adjectives, as, a he goat, a she animal. Shakespeare uses "thou" as a verb: 'If thou *thou'st* him,' that is, if thou say'st "thou" to him; and we nowadays say that Friends "thee and thou" us. Indeed, this convertibility of the parts of speech is so characteristic of the English language that I found this sentence in a London magazine: 'Here are the *whereons* to make your fortune,'—an adverb being used as a noun."—*Every-Day English, p. 295.*

(*b*) The gist of the matter is that the genius of our language is such that there are but comparatively few of its words that we may label with grammatical names and say that they always belong to such and such a part-of-speech. Hence it is we say that a classification of words according to what they *do*, and an attempt to define these classes, will prove to be more or less unsatisfactory. We shall constantly find that words which according to one definition belong to one part-of-speech (as, for instance, a noun or a preposition) are doing the work which, according to another definition, belongs to some other part-of-speech. That is to say, words seem, at times, to have a double function; examples of such are adverbial nouns, relative pronouns, etc. [See 109, 119.]

(*c*) Not a little of the inaccuracy of grammatical definitions has resulted from incorrect terms to begin with. For the benefit of those who are sufficiently interested in our mother-tongue to enjoy a critical study of it, some of the inaccuracies and the incorrectness of terms, above referred to, are discussed in the following notes.

332. Verbs (55).—Verbs usually assert one of three things: 1. *Action* (or 'doing'); as, "I *walk*," "God *loves*;" 2. *Existence* (or 'being'); as, "We *are*," "God *is*;" 3. *Possession* (or 'having'); as, "We *have*," "He *has*."

(*a*) Verbs are also used to ask questions and to express commands; as, "Will you go?" [You] "Come." Surely the *coming* and *going* are not here asserted. (56.)

(*b*) By changing the form of a verb and using it in a peculiar way we cause

it simply to *assume* the action, existence or possession, or to name these things without asserting them. Verbs used in this way have by some been classified as separate parts of speech—participles and infinitives. We do not consider such a classification essential (indeed it is not so regarded by any recent author) and have treated the participles as *forms* of the verb, and the infinitives as phrases, both having certain peculiar uses. (164, 190-4; also 365.)

333. Phrases (10).—A phrase is a combination of two or more words (not including a subject), having in a sentence the office or value of a single part of speech and capable of being parsed as such.—*Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.*

(*a*) With the verb-phrases may be classed many idiomatic expressions, such as, "The fire *went out*," or "was *put out*," "He will not *give up*." On this point, Professor Sill says: ["Practical Lessons," p. 149, foot-note.]

"Any group of words whose relations to each other are obscure and difficult to determine, and which, taken together, do the work of a verb, may properly and conveniently be called a verb-phrase. This definition includes several groups of words which the grammarians usually take good care to avoid, on account of the difficulties which they present. I believe it to be quite in the direction of simplicity and good sense to regard even expressions like the following as verb-phrases, and to make no attempt with beginners to analyze them, or to parse the words separately:

1. He *gets excited* over trifling annoyances. 2. I *am going to write* you a letter. 3. I *get up* at six every morning. 4. The matter *should be attended to*. 5. The poor *must be taken care of*."

Professor Whitney says: ["Essentials of Eng. Gram.," p. 126.] "It is impossible to draw any absolute line between such verb-phrases as have been set forth and named above and those yet looser and more accidental combinations into which words enter in sentences, in order to limit and define an action in still other ways, as regards time and manner.

Thus, one might prefer to class as futures, phrases like these:

I am going to give; I am about to give; I am on the point of giving."

334. Pronouns (11).—"A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun." Professor Sill gives this definition in his "Practical Lessons in English," and then in a foot-note, adds: "Perhaps the following definition would be better than the time-honored one given above: *A pronoun is a word that represents an object without naming it.*"

(*a*) We are not to think of this part-of-speech as including only what are called personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns, for there is a large class of words, numerals, demonstratives, and indefinites, particularly the latter, that often as truly represent objects without naming them as do *I*, *we*, *he*, *they*, *who*, *it*, etc. (83, 84.)

(*b*) In speaking of words that have lost their individuality, Samuel Ramsey says: "Among the most important of those words that have no individu-

ality now are the *Pronouns*. The name means standing for or representing nouns; and there is no possible noun for which some of them may not be used. Hence, the pronoun has been termed *a name for everything*. Associated with them are some words which, not in signification but in grammatical use, partake of the character of adjectives. They sometimes take the place of nouns and sometimes accompany them." Again, the same author says, "There are, no doubt, words now losing their individuality, and sinking into the condition of being 'names of everything.' As an example of this kind, Professor Earle instances the word *thing*. There is certainly no object in nature or art to which it is more appropriate than to another. Originally it signified a public assembly bearing some analogy to a town meeting." (83 *a*.)

(*c*) In a chapter on this subject, Mr. White shows that pronouns are probably the oldest and certainly the least changeable part-of-speech we have. He further shows that the idea that "a pronoun is a word that stands for a noun or an ordinary name," or as "one that points out some person or thing that has been named before" is, in part at least, erroneous. He quotes Buttman as saying, "That pronouns cannot be so precisely defined as not to admit many words which may also be regarded as adjectives," and then adds: "This is only a part of the confusion which reigns in grammar. For the very grammarians cannot agree among themselves as to the limits between nouns and adjectives, so that some of them compromise the matter by making two classes—nouns substantive and nouns adjective. The truth upon this subject is that the so-called pronoun, instead of being a make-shift, a convenience to prevent confusion and monotony, a sort of appendix and auxiliary to an already developed vocabulary, is the noun of nouns, the word of words, the most important, the most radical, the most ineradicable element of language."—*Every-Day English, pp. 326–28.*

335. Adjective (15).—This is the usual explanation of the term "adjective," and the definition given (15 *b*) is, in substance, the one commonly met with. This definition includes nouns and pronouns in the possessive case. The word 'adjective' is from *adject*, which means (see Webster) 'to throw to,' 'to add to.' Hence, words 'thrown to,' or 'added to' other words to modify them. Since adverbs are as truly adjected ('thrown, or added to') the verb, etc., as our so-called adjectives, the term "adjective" is not strictly a significant one. *Adnominal* would have been a more significant name; that is, a word added to a noun ('nominal') or pronoun.

336. Adverb (19) is not strictly a significant term, but since the principal use of this class of words is to modify a verb direct (the qualifying of adjectives and other adverbs being but a small part of their work), it may be admitted as probably the best term for the purpose.

(*a*) The principal objection to the usual definition of the adverb, namely, that it is "a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a verb," etc., lies in the fact that it includes too much. For does not the object of every transitive

verb *limit, qualify*, or *modify* the meaning of that verb? To illustrate: "That man drinks—coffee." No one will undertake to say that the noun "coffee" has not here a limiting or qualifying effect on the meaning of the verb *drinks*.

(*b*) Professor Sill gives the following definition: "An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of any word except a name word" [nouns and pronouns]. This is a good definition, since an adverb may qualify a preposition or a conjunction. (354.)

(*c*) Again, the definition includes nouns denoting time, distance, direction, measure or value. To say that a noun in such cases is the "object of a preposition understood," or that it is "in the objective case without a governing word," is a part of the "make-believe" with which our English grammars have heretofore been filled. The fault lies in the definition of adverbs, and not in calling nouns used in this way adverbial nouns, or as by Abbott and Whitney, "adverbial objectives." [See 373.]

337. Preposition (26), from *pre-*, 'before,' and *posit*, 'placed.' True, this is accepted as meaning "placed before" the principal word (a noun or some substantive) in the phrase; but the term is faulty since it is just as applicable to all other words in the sentence (except the last), each of them being 'placed before' some other word.

(*a*) Dr. Abbott objects to the usual definition of a preposition,—"a word that shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence." Regarding this definition, he says: "It seems to me of little use even for clever children and of great harm to dull ones. I confess further, for my part, I should have thought that in the sentence 'Thomas *protects* John,' Thomas stands *in the relation* of a protector to John, so that "protects" *shows the relation* between 'Thomas' and 'John' and is, therefore, according to this definition, a preposition."

338. The term **prepositional phrase** has long been loosely employed to denote both adjectival (aj'ek-tiv-al) and adverbial phrases beginning with a preposition; and it is not only a loose term, but an incorrect one. A "prepositional phrase" (or, properly, *preposition-phrase*) is a phrase of two or more words used as a single preposition. [75^3; also see Webster.]

339. Conjunctions (29).—A term that includes the relative pronouns as well as certain adverbs. But it is to be observed that the relatives have another office to fill (119), and this is true also to an extent of the conjunctive adverbs which have a modifying force aside from their office as connectives.

340. Interjections (31).—"The name interjection signifies something that is *interjected*, or 'thrown into the midst of' something else; and this something else is the sentence as made up of the other parts of speech. Calling them thus, then, implies that they are not of the sentence itself; they are not put together with other parts to make up sentences. And this is in fact the

case. Hence, though it is proper enough, because convenient, to call the interjection a part-of-speech, they are not in the same sense as the others. Each interjection is, in a certain way, an undivided sentence, put in the language of feeling rather than in that of reason."—*Essentials of English Grammar, p. 19.*

341. (37.)—We have made use of the terms "bare subject" and "bare predicate" in preference to the usual "simple subject," etc., for the reason that we think it better to restrict the term *simple* in its syntax use to distinguish the simple sentence from complex and compound sentence. Professor Whitney is the only author, so far as we have noticed, that has employed the terms "bare" and "simple" in this distinctive way. He applies the term "bare" also to simple sentences consisting of only a subject and a predicate.

342. Predicate Adjective (16 *b*);—otherwise, "attribute complement."

(*a*) "Attribute complement" is proper enough when applied to predicate adjectives (*attribute* meaning 'a quality' or 'characteristic'), but by some it has been loosely employed to mean not only adjectives but nouns, pronouns, phrases (including infinitives) and clauses, used to complete the predicate after copula verbs. We believe it is better to use the more significant terms found in paragraphs 16 *b*, 17, 41 *a*, and 120.

343. (42–3.)—Since the verb is always limited by its object, it is also called the "object complement;" hence, the complete predicate includes the object with all its modifiers. In this work, however, we have restricted the term "complement" to the infinitive adjuncts of subjects and objects. [See 222 and 223.]

344. Enough (52 *c*), when an adverb, always follows the verb it modifies; as, "It is not deep enough." "They did not work hard enough."

345. Personal Pronouns (80).—"As an explanation of our distinction between the *First*, *Second*, and *Third Persons*, it may be remembered that the Romans, whose grammar we have copied, thought it natural for the person speaking to think *first* of himself (*I*); second, of the person to whom he was speaking (*you*), and third, of any one else about whom he was speaking (*him* or *her*).—*How to Parse, p. 61.*

346. (81 *a*.)—**It** (from "hit," the Anglo-Saxon neuter of *he*) is not, strictly speaking, a personal pronoun, though often used in referring to young children. For the origin of *it* and *its*, see "Words and Their Uses," pp. 241–44.

347. Relative Pronouns (82).—We have not included *what* in this list, though such a classification of the word has long been followed by grammarians. The parsing of *what* as a "double relative," equivalent to *that which* or the *thing which*, may possess an interest for those who delight in technicalities, but there is nothing but confusion in it for the average student. Besides, it is a useless distinction, almost an absurdity, to consider *what* any more a rela-

tive in "I don't know *what* he wanted," than *which* is in "I don't know *which* he wanted;" for there is no antecedent for either word. True, *which* is selective, *what*, general; but in these sentences both are indefinite, and there is no more need of resolving *what* into *that which* or *the thing which*, in order to parse it, than there is in resolving *which* into *the thing which*. Nor is the *what* any more a relative in "We have not heard *what* caused the trouble," than *which* is in "We have not heard *which* caused it," or *who* in "We have not heard *who* caused it."

(*a*) "The conjunction *as* is sometimes used, especially after *such* with the value of a relative pronoun; thus, 'I love *such as* love me;' *such as* meaning here the same as *those who*."—*Essentials of English Grammar, p. 78.*

(*b*) **Who, Which,** and **That.**—"*Who* and *whose* refer to persons and things personified; *which*, to infants, irrational animals, and to persons when the specification is indefinite or interrogative; and *that* is used in the place of both *which* and *who*. *Which* is general; *that* is restrictive; hence a relative clause that conveys an additional and general idea requires *which* instead of *that;* for illustration, see the use of "that" in the last sentence.—Townsend's "*Art of Speech*," *p. 111.*

(*c*) Dr. Abbott, in "How to Write Clearly," gives the following rule for using *who*, *which*, and *that:*

When using the Relative Pronoun, use "who" and "which" where the meaning is "and he, it, &c.," or "for he, it, &c." In other cases use "that," if euphony allows.

"I heard this from the inspector, *who* (and he) heard it from the guard *that* travelled with the train."

"Fetch me (all) the books *that* lie on the table, and also the pamphlets, *which* (and these) you will find on the floor."

An adherence to this rule would remove much ambiguity. Thus:

"There was a public-house next door, *which* was a great nuisance," means "*and this* (*i. e.* the fact of its being next door) was a great nuisance;" whereas, *that* would have meant "Next door was a public house *that* (*i. e.* the public house) was a great nuisance."

"Who," "which," etc., introduce a new fact about the antecedent, whereas "that" introduces something without which the antecedent is incomplete or undefined.

Thus, in the first example above, "inspector" is complete in itself, and "who" introduces a new *fact* about him; "guard" is incomplete, and requires "*that* traveled with the train" to complete the meaning.

It is not, and cannot be maintained, that this rule, though observed in Elizabethan English, is observed by our best modern authors. (Probably a general impression that "that" cannot be referred to persons has assisted "who" in supplanting "that" as a relative.) But the convenience of the rule is so great that beginners in composition may, with advantage, adhere to it.

348. Who (42, 48).—The objective form of the interrogative *who* is becoming obsolete. It is now confined almost wholly to the position immediately following a preposition. Thus we ask: "For whom did you inquire?" but "Who did you inquire for?" "To whom did you apply?" but "Who did you apply to?" "Who did you see?"

(*a*) In an article in *The Chautauquan* (Feb., 1885), Mr. Richard Grant White said: "All the little specks of grammar that the English has are mostly to be found in the pronouns. In the use of one of these a change is very gradually taking place. *Whom* has begun to disappear, began indeed a long time ago; but of late is fading somewhat more perceptibly. For example: All speakers of good English say, The man whom I saw, not The man who I saw; *whom* being the objective form of who. But now-a-days not one person in a hundred of the best bred and best educated speakers of the English language asks, Whom did you see? but *Who* did you see? Indeed, the latter form of the question may be regarded as accepted English. Yet in the latter phrase as in the former, the pronoun is the object of the verb *see*, and should strictly have the objective form. But Whom did you see? would now sound very formal and precise, almost priggish. When, however, the pronoun is brought in direct contact with the verb, as in the phrase, 'The man whom I saw,' we shrink from insult to the little semblance of grammar that our English possesses and give the word its objective form. The time will probably come, although it may be remote, when *whom* will altogether have disappeared."

(*b*) **Whose** is the possessive form of the pronoun *who*, and also of the adjective *which*. It is used: 1. As an adjective-relative (82 *a*, example 2); 2. As an interrogative indefinite (83 *b*); 3. As an ordinary indefinite pronoun (83 *c*); 4. As an interrogative adjective (91); 5. As an ordinary indefinite adjective (92 *a*).

349. Articles.—The word *article* means a "little joint or limb."—*Dr. Abbott.* Hence, the term is not inappropriately applied to *an* (*a*) and *the*, which are so closely connected with their nouns that they seem to be a part (a 'limb') of the noun.

(*a*) "The *the* which we often use before a comparative (adjective or adverb), in such phrases as—

The more the merrier, The more he looked at her the less he liked her,

is not an article at all, but an adverb.

Again, in phrases like—

Two miles an hour, Three shillings a yard,

the *an* or *a* is not precisely the article, but a weakened form of *one* in another sense, that of 'each *one*,' 'each,' 'every.'

Once more, in—

He is gone a hunting, They set it a going,

and the like (which are often, and better, written a-hunting, a-going), the *a* has nothing to do with either the article or the numeral, but is a remnant of an old preposition, generally *on*."—*Professor Whitney.*—"Essentials," p. 95.

(*b*) The use of *an* before "historic" and other words beginning with the pronounced *h* and accented on the second syllable, though still observed by some writers and speakers, is becoming obsolete.

350. Pronominal Adjectives (93).—Grammarians differ as to the

words included in this class. Professor Whitney includes all the possessive forms given in 81 *a*, while Dr. Abbott and others include only those given in 141, regarding those given in 142 as *possessive pronouns*.

351. Words "understood" (94). — The noun should not be said to be "understood," unless it can be supplied from the same sentence. To say that the noun is "understood" after *each* and *neither* in "Each was positive but neither was right," is guess-work, since we cannot know positively what the noun is without going outside the sentence. Each word should be judged (classified) *according to what it does in its own sentence.*

352. Copula Verbs.—The copula *be* is generally regarded as the base, or root, of all the pure copulas (100 *b*, *Note*); but philological research has proved that they come to us from three different roots.

(*a*) Concerning the verbs *seem*, *appear*, etc., in their copulative use, it may be observed that the emphatic *do* or *did* may be placed before them, which is not true of the pure copulas. When used copulatively, as *seem* always is, these words admit the copula *to be* after them without affecting the meaning. This is also true of the passive verb-phrases made from such transitive verbs as *choose*, *elect*, *appoint*, *name*; as, *was chosen*, *was elected*, *has been appointed.*

(*b*) **"Adverbial Predicate.**—In some sentences, and especially with the verbs of condition and motion, the predicate adjective seems to modify both the subject and the verb. For example, in the sentence, 'The sun shines *bright*,' we mean not merely that the *sun* is bright, but also that the *shining* is bright. Such an adjective may be called an Adverbial Predicate Adjective, because it seems to have something of the force of an adverb. Other examples are, 'He stands *firm*;' 'The milk has turned *sour*;' 'The tone rings *clear* and *full*;' 'They sat *mute*.'"—*Whitney & Lockwood's Grammar, p. 99.*

(*c*) **Verbs of Identity.**—"The Intransitive Verbs 'is,' 'looks,' 'seems,' 'appears,' and the Transitive Verbs 'make,' 'create,' 'appoint,' 'deem,' 'esteem,' being often used to express identity, may be called 'Verbs of Identity.'"—*How to Parse, p. 105.*

(*d*) **Copulative Verbs.**—To those mentioned in the Note under 100 *b*, may be added *grow*, *get* (in the sense of 'become'), *turn*, *stand*, *remain*, *continue*, and *sound*. These verbs have a two-fold office in sentences, asserting *condition* (or state of being) in some and *action* in others. It is principally on account of this double use of these copulative verbs that persons so frequently err by using adverbs instead of adjectives after them. Upon this point Prof. Sill makes the following comment: [Practical Lessons, p. 123.] "Much bad English is due to ignorance of the two meanings and uses of these words. It is noticeable that those untaught in grammar usually say, for instance, 'The city looks gay,' as they ought, while those who attempt some precision of speech will blunder by saying, 'The city looks gaily,' which means nothing at all." Surely here, as in other matters, "a little learning is a dangerous thing."

353. Passive Verb-phrase (101).—Notice that the passive form of the predicate is not made by a change in the word "kicked" but by putting another word before it to form a phrase. That is, a verb does not, in itself, show "passivity," as the grammarians say.

354. Adverbs (103).—There are cases in which an adverb modifies a preposition. As examples of such, Professor Whitney gives—

"A result *far beyond* his hopes," "He jumped *clear over* the wall,"

and Reed and Kellogg ["Higher Lessons in English," p. 43] give—

"The Suspension Bridge is stretched across the Niagara river *just below* the Falls."

(*a*) In a like manner, the adverb *just* may modify a conjunction in such sentences as, "He came *just as* I was leaving," "It happened *just before* we arrived."

(*b*) "The adverbs that qualify other adverbs are almost only those of degree; as, *very, too, more, most*. The same are used most freely with adjectives. But as adjectives shade off into participles, implying something of condition or action, they take more or less freely the whole series of qualifying adverbs which the verb takes."—*Professor Whitney.*—"Essentials," p. 136.

355. "The words 'yes' and 'no,' which are used in replying or responding to a question, and are therefore called *responsives*, were originally adverbs, but are so no longer because they never combine with other words as modifying or limiting them, but are in themselves complete answers. Thus, in answer to the question, 'Will you go?' *yes* and *no* means respectively, 'I will go,' or 'I will not go.' The responsives stand thus for a whole sentence, and hence are not properly *parts* of speech at all, in the real meaning of that name, but are more analogous with the interjections.'"—*Professor Whitney.*

356. Connectives (49).—There are five classes of connective words: Copula verbs (16*a*), relative (or conjunctive) pronouns (82), conjunctive adverbs (105), prepositions (26), and conjunctions (29). But of these only the last named are *pure* connectives.

(*a*) A pure connective is a word that does nothing but connect other elements.

(*b*) The copula verbs assert as well as connect. (16.)

(*c*) The relative pronouns connect, but at the same time they have some other office in the sentence, either as *subject, object*, or *adjective-relative*. (82 and 119.)

(*d*) The conjunctive adverbs, aside from being connectives, are also a modifying effect on other words. (105.)

(*e*) Prepositions are usually regarded as being pure connectives, but, in reality, their chief use is not to connect, but to introduce phrases that they help to form. They are a sort of phrase "article," as shown by the use of *for* to introduce a noun phrase. (222 *a*.)

357. Conjunctions (113*a*).—In speaking of those words that are "usually and naturally adverbs," but which at times become co-ordinate conjunctions, Professor Sill says: "When these words are so used, *and, but, or*, or *nor* can be

put in their places or supplied before them, without materially changing the meaning; thus—

'The day is warm, *nevertheless* (co-ord. conj.) it is pleasant,' may be changed to 'The day is warm, but *nevertheless* (adverb) it is pleasant.'

'Be obedient, *else* (co-ord. conj.) I will punish you,' may be changed thus—'Be obedient, or *else* (adverb) I will punish you.'

'He was determined, *yet* (co-ord. conj) he was quiet,' may be changed into 'He was determined, and *yet* (adverb) he was quiet.'"

(*a*) Such phrases as 'as well as,' 'as far as,' etc., are adverbial conjunctive-phrases when they mean something like 'also,' or 'besides;' as, The man *as well as* the boy was in the wrong. But when the phrase introduces a comparison, the second word is an adjective or an adverb; the first, an adverb modifying the second, and the last word is the conjunction. Examples: He looks *as well as* usual. I worked *as long as* I could. You did not go *as far as* we did.

(*b*) **Correlatives** (114).—Concerning the pairs of words that are commonly called "correlative conjunctions," it is to be observed that the first word of the pair is not a conjunction, either in sense or use, since it connects nothing. It is strange that grammarians have gone on copying one another in this as in other things. Professor Sill is the only one, so far as we have observed, who does not consider the first word of the pair a conjunction. He says, "Some conjunctions regularly follow certain other words, usually adjectives or adverbs. Words so belonging together are called correlative words."

358. (123 *a*.)—**That,** introducing a noun clause, has by some been called a conjunction. A *conjunction* connecting what? In case the noun clause is used objectively, does it, as the object, need any connecting element between it and the verb? *That* in such cases is merely introductory and may properly be called the "clause article." [See definition of "article" above, 349.]

359. (126-7.)—These **form-changes** are generally called "inflections." '*Inflection*' means a 'bending.' [See 362.]

360. Plurals of Proper Nouns, Titles and Compound Nouns.—"Most proper nouns form their plurals regularly.

Examples: The Germans; all the Smiths; the Joneses; both Queen Marys; the two Gen. Jacksons; any of the Henrys of England; either of the Mrs. Browns; the Shakespeares and Miltons of our time.

(*a*) When we wish to refer to several members of the same family, we may give the plural form to the *title*, instead of to the name.

Examples: The Misses Blackman; the Messrs. Irving.

(*b*) The title is also made plural when it is used with several names.

Examples: Gens. Grant and Sherman; Drs. Carey and Field; Misses Mary, Alice, and Edith Browning; Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; Presidents Cleveland and Harrison.

(*c*) Compound nouns *generally* add the sign of the plural to that part of the word which is *limited* or *described* by the other part.

Examples: Blackbirds, merchantmen, house-tops, steamboats, hangers-on, brothers-in-law, knights-errant, commanders-in-chief.

(*d*) Some words, originally compounds, are no longer regarded as such, and are treated as simple words.

Examples: Mouthfuls, handfuls, spoonfuls.

(*e*) Some few compounds make both parts of the word plural.

Examples: Men-servants; knights-templars."

—*Whitney & Lockwood's Grammar, p. 41.*

361. "Gender."—Paragraph 134 contains all that we deem it necessary or advisable to give on the subject of sex distinction in words. The matter is of no practical importance in the construction of an English sentence. The term "gender" has not been employed, for the reason that its use to denote sex is a forced meaning. In Latin (from which the term was copied), German, French, and other inflected languages, *gender* has to do with the *words* and not with the objects themselves. In any of these languages, the name of a woman may be of the *masculine* "gender," or the name of an inanimate object may be either of the *masculine* or *feminine* "gender;" and so an adjective may be of the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender, according to its required agreement with the word it qualifies.

(*a*) The number of English nouns to which the female suffix, *ess*, may properly be added is very small. Of these, the greater part are titles, such as *countess*, *empress*, *princess*, etc., where the distinction of sex is a matter of necessity. The *ess* should not be added to a noun denoting vocation, office, or rank, unless the noun primarily means a man, which is rarely the case. Besides, *ess* is generally superfluous because the noun is almost always accompanied by a female pronoun or title; as, *she*, *Mrs.*, *Miss*, or by some female Christian name. Thus it is absurd to say, "Mary is a waitress at the Hotel de Bowser," "She was a poetess of considerable fame," or "Mrs. Queerquill is an editress of no mean ability," and so forth.

362. "Case" (135).—The word *case* is from the Greek word which means "falling," that is, as the Greeks applied the term to words it meant the "falling" or "bending" of a word (its deviation in form), from the subject form which they regard as *erect*. Hence, as Dr. Abbott remarks, "The Greeks would not have used such an expression as a subjective ['nominative'], 'case' at all; to them it would have been as absurd as to speak of an erect falling."

(*a*) Plainly, then, nouns have but one 'case,' the *possessive*. The so-called 'nominative case' is not properly a 'case,' having nothing to distinguish it as such. Neither is the objective use of a noun a 'case' since a noun in that position has no form ('falling' or 'bending') to distinguish it.

(*b*) With a few of the pronouns, however, the matter of 'case' is different. *I, he, she, we, they* and *who* have three forms to indicate their subjective, objective and possessive uses. (Though *his* may be used in all three positions, while *who* is becoming a common form for both subject and object. 348.) *You* has the possessive form but no distinctive nominative or objective forms, having supplanted *thou* and *thee* as singular nominative and objective forms. We have spoken of the 'cases' of pronouns and the possessive 'case' of nouns, as *forms*. Dr. Abbott speaks of them as the "uses" of these parts of speech.

363. Possessive of Nouns in Apposition (137).—"When a possessive noun is followed by an explanatory word, the possessive sign is added to the explanatory word only. But if the explanatory word has several modifiers, or if there are more explanatory words than one, the principal word only takes the sign.

Remark.—When a common noun is explanatory of a proper noun, and the name of the thing possessed is omitted, the possessive sign may be added to either the modifying or principal word; as, We stopped at Tiffany, the *jeweler's*, or, We stopped at *Tiffany's*, the jeweler. (If the name of the thing possessed is *given*, the noun immediately before it takes the sign.) Examples: This is Tennyson, the poet's home. I took tea at Brown's, my old friend and school-mate. This belongs to Victoria, queen of England's domain. This province is Victoria's, queen of England." From *Higher Lessons in English* (Reed & Kellogg), *p. 211*.

364. Person in Verbs (157-8-9).—The archaic forms *art* and *wast* have gone out of general use along with *thou* and *thee*. With them also have gone the verb-form of the second person ending in *st* or *est* and the third person form ending in *th* or *eth*. These forms are found in older English.

You in supplanting *thou* has carried with it the plural *are* which has thus become both singular and plural. This reduces the *person* signification of verbs in modern English to the first person singular of the verb *be—am*, which distinguishes the singular *I* from all other singular subjects.

The use of the plural form of other verbs with *I* is plainly a person use, since it cannot be a number use. But it is to be observed that it is not a use which the verb itself indicates; for it (the verb) does not distinguish between the first person singular, and the first, second, and third persons plural. Clearly, then, the distinction of person in verbs is so limited as hardly to deserve mention in parsing.

365. Participles (164).—Properly speaking, the participial noun ('verbal-noun') is an infinitive, sometimes called the "infinitive in *ing*" or the "participial infinitive;" also called the "gerund." It is from the old English infinitive in *an*. However, as it is a true participle in that it shares in the nature of two parts of speech at once, we have classed it as such to avoid confusion to the student.

(*a*) [See paragraph 104.] The verbal noun ('participle') is used also in the predicate after the copula; as—

His favorite pastime is *telling stories to children*.

(*b*) Dr. Abbott regards participles in such sentences as—

> *Listening*, we caught the sound of clattering hoofs, [Example, p. 71, top.]
> Looking out of the window we saw them coming, [Sentence 12, par. 171.]

as adverbially used, being abridged adverbial clause; thus—

> *When* (or because) *we were listening*, we caught the sound—etc.,

and he treats the participial attendant element as adverbial in sense as shown in paragraph 214. We believe this to be in the line of common-sense simplicity in analysis and parsing.

366. Shall and Will (175.)—Thus, when I say I *shall* go I state merely proposed future action on my part; if I am asked to go and I reply I *will* go it is understood that I have promised to go. Again, if there is any hindering cause or obstacle to prevent my going I may resolve to go anyway, in which case I naturally say, I *will* go, showing the exercise of *will-power*,—a *determination* on my part.

The speaker may exercise will-power for himself but not for another. Thus, he may express determination by saying, I *will* go, but not by *You*, or *he will* go. He can, however, denote his own determination in regard to another, and its effects upon the person spoken to or spoken of; and this he does by saying, "You, or he, *shall* go;" that is, 'I will oblige (compel) you, or him, to go.'

We should not lose sight of this distinction between *shall* and *will*, for if we do, we shall lose their real significance and come to regard them as mere auxiliaries whose only use is to help express future time. The mere emphasizing of *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the second and third, will not make this distinction as to determination on the part of the former, or obligation or necessity placed upon the latter.

(*a*) *Shall* and *will* have been thoroughly discussed by able writers; but for the space it occupies we know of nothing better than the following by Mr. Richard Grant White:

"The distinction between these words, although very clear when it is once apprehended, is liable to be disregarded by persons who have not had the advantage of early intercourse with educated English people. I mean English in blood and breeding; for, as the traveller found that in Paris even the children could speak French, so in New England it is noteworthy that even the boys and girls playing on the commons use *shall* and *will* correctly. . . . . .

The radical signification of *will* (Anglo-Saxon *willan*) is purpose, intention, determination; that of *shall* (Anglo-Saxon *sceal*, ought,) is obligation. *I will do* means, I purpose doing—I am determined to do. *I shall do* means, radically, I ought to do; and as a man is supposed to do what he sees he ought to do, *I shall do* came to mean, I am about doing—to be, in fact, a mere announcement of future action, more or less remote. But so *you shall do* means, radically, you ought to do; and therefore unless we mean to impose an obligation or an-

nounce an action on the part of another person, over whom we claim some control, *shall*, in speaking of the mere voluntary action of another person, is inappropriate; and we therefore say *you will*, assuming that it is the volition of the other party to do thus or so. Hence, in merely announcing future action, we say, I or we *shall*, you, he, or they *will*; and, in declaring purpose on our own part, or on the part of another, obligation, or inevitable action, which we mean to control, we say, I or we *will*, you, he, or they *shall*. Official orders, which are in the form *you will*, are but a seeming exception to this rule of speech, which they, in fact, illustrate. For in them the courtesy of superior to subordinate, carried to the extreme even in giving command, avoids the semblance of compulsion, while it assumes obedience in its very language. *Should* and *would* follow, of course, the fortunes of *shall* and *will*; and, in the following short dialogue, I have given, I believe, easily apprehended examples of all the proper uses of these words, the discrimination of which is found by some persons so difficult. A husband is supposed to be trying to induce his reluctant wife to go from their suburban home to town for a day or two.

He. I shall go to town tomorrow. Of course you will?

She. No, thanks. I shall not go. I shall wait for better weather, if that will ever come. When shall we have three fair days together again?

He. Don't mind that. You should go. I should like to have you hear Ronconi.

She. No, no; I will not go.

He. [*To himself.*] But you shall go, in spite of the weather and of yourself. [*To her.*] Well, remember, if you should change your mind, I should be very happy to have your company. Do come; you will enjoy the opera; and you shall have the nicest possible supper at Delmonico's.

She. No; I should not enjoy the opera. There are no singers worth listening to; and I wouldn't walk to the end of the drive for the best supper Delmonico will ever cook. A man seems to think that any human creature would do anything for something good to eat.

He. Most human creatures will.

She. I shall stay at home, and you shall have your opera and your supper all to yourself.

He. Well, if you will stay at home, you shall; and if you won't have the supper, you shan't; but my trip will be dull without you. I shall be bored to death—that is, unless, indeed, your friend, Mrs. Dashatt Mann, should go to town tomorrow, as she said she thought she would; then, perhaps, we shall meet at the opera, and she and her nieces will sup with me.

She. [*To herself.*] My dear friend Mrs. Dashatt Mann! And so that woman will be at her old tricks with my husband again. But she shall find that I am mistress of this situation, in spite of her big black eyes and her big white shoulders. [*To him.*] John, why should you waste yourself upon those ugly, giggling girls?

To be sure, *she's* a fine woman enough; that is, if you will buy your beauty by the pound, but they!

He. O, think what I will about that, I must take them, for politeness' sake; and, indeed, although the lady is a matron, it wouldn't be quite proper to take her alone—would it? What should you say?

She. Well, not exactly, perhaps. But it don't much matter, she can take care of herself, I should think. She's no chicken; she'll never see thirty-five again. But it's too bad you should be bored with her nieces—and since you're bent on having me go with you—and—after all, I should like to hear Ronconi—and—you shan't be going about with those cackling girls—well, John, dear, I'll go.—*Words and Their Uses, p. 267.*

367. Future and Perfect "Tenses" (180).—It is usual to speak of the

verb-phrases that indicate the future and perfect (also called the 'oblique') divisions of time as "tenses" of the verb; but in reality no verb can by itself denote more than two divisions of time. Thus, a person may say 'I *walk*,' 'I *walked*,' expressing present and past action. But if he wishes to denote future time he must say, 'I shall (or will) *walk*,' making use of the verb *walk*, which by itself denotes present time. Clearly, then, future time is not expressed by the verb *walk* but by the auxiliary *shall* (or *will*) placed before it.

And so in "I have walked," the verb *walked* is nothing more or less than the past time form of walk. It is by the use of *have* before the past *walked* that we denote what is called the "present perfect tense."

(*a*) **Have,** in itself, denotes possession, present possession; as, "He has the toothache," "I have an idea," "We have fears." *Walked* denotes a completed or perfect action; hence, *have walked* literally denotes present possession of a perfect or completed action, and is, therefore, properly called the "present perfect time." It is not, however, the present perfect tense of the verb *walked* but a "present perfect" verb-phrase.

(*b*) **Had** denotes past possession; as, "He had the money," "They had a quarrel." So in the sentence, "I had walked a long distance," *had walked* denotes past possession of a completed action; hence it is a "past perfect" verb-phrase, with *walk* as its base.

(*c*) Again, in "I shall have walked," the phrase *shall have walked* denotes future (*shall*) possession (*have*) of a perfect, or completed, action (*walked*).

368. "Mode."—Regarding the so called "mode" of verbs, it should be observed that the mode ('manner') of making an assertion is not a quality ('modification') of the verb itself, but a characteristic, so to speak, of the entire expression. For instance, a verb has no form ('inflection') which in itself denotes subjunctive use; for that, it must depend upon its connection with the words expressing doubt, supposition, or future contingency.

369. The "subjunctive mode" (so called) of verbs is now practically confined to the use of *were* in the present (under the circumstances mentioned in paragraph 188) and the use of the present form of verbs with a future sense in conditional clauses as shown in 189.

(*a*) Concerning the subjunctive use of *be* and the present plural form of other verbs with both singular and plural subjects, in expressing present doubt or a future contingency as the possible condition upon which some other action depends, grammarians and good writers are divided in opinion and usage; but the preponderance of opinion and usage favors abolishing the subjunctive. Some authors still hold that these subjunctive uses are important since they make a distinction between assumed facts or facts about which the speaker is in doubt, and mere future contingencies; thus,

If it rains (now, as you say it does), I shall not go.
If it rains (tomorrow, as it may), I shall not go.

But these same authors tell us that when there is doubt as to whether the in-

dicative or the subjunctive mode is required, we are to use the indicative. Now, it is this very uncertainty about the subjunctive that makes it objectionable; for the perplexity usually results in a ridiculous mixture of the indicative and subjunctive forms of expression, sometimes in the same sentence. On this point Edward S. Gould says: ["Good English," p. 147.]

"The subjunctive mood is a universal stumbling-block. Nobody seems to understand it, although almost everybody attempts to use it. At the best, when it is used correctly—supposing that there is anything correct about it—it gives to a sentence an air of pedantry, if not of affectation. Mr. Bryant [William Cullen], and Professor Hadley of Yale College, denounce it as absurd, and many other educated men hold the same opinion." [Here follows a lengthy quotation from Goold Brown, who himself quotes Chandler as saying: "It would, perhaps, be better to abolish the use of the subjunctive mood entirely. Its use is a continual source of dispute among grammarians and of perplexity to schools," etc. Mr. Gould then continues:]

"Brown's entire comments on the subjunctive mood fill three closely printed royal octavo pages,—338-340—of his "Grammar of Grammars," and the reader is referred to them for a full discussion of the subject. Enough is here quoted to justify the first paragraph of this chapter; and some instances of the way in which good writers use—or abuse—and do use and don't use the subjunctive, may serve to illustrate, and possibly to vindicate, Chandler's remark, "It would, perhaps, be better to abolish the use of the subjunctive mood entirely."

[Here follow a number of sentences showing how good writers have erred in the use of the subjunctive mood. Of these we quote only the following:]

1. "If indeed, the saying be true," etc.—"If heaven expresses one thing," etc.
2. "Unless he fail to express himself," etc.—"If he does explain himself," etc.
3. "If heaven is used in one sense only, and if that sense be the sidereal host," etc.

Mr. Gould then concludes his remarks upon the subjunctive by saying: "Similar quotations from English literature, past and present, might be continued through hundreds and thousands of pages. But perhaps enough has been given to induce the reader to say of the subjunctive, as is sometimes said of a difficult conundrum, "we had [might?] better give it up."

370. The Infinitive (190).—The question as to whether the so-called "sign" of the infinitive is a preposition may be of interest to philologists, but it is of no importance to the average student of language. It is a mere technicality, and practically there is no good reason for considering it other than a part of the infinitive. Whatever the *to* may have been in former times, one thing is quite certain, it has come to be, as Mr. Ramsey says, "a mere earmark of the infinitive." But since this "earmark" is so often lacking, we question the propriety of calling it a "sign," and would suggest the name "infinitive article" as a term more nearly fitting the case.

(*a*) *About* is now the only preposition that takes an infinitive object (191[4]). Formerly the infinitive was used after *for*. [See Matt. 11:8; John x: 10.]

371. Auxiliary Verbs (198).—Formerly, all the auxiliaries were regarded as principal verbs, and the verb following one of them was regarded as an infinitive (as, indeed, it is) without its "sign." In course of time, most of the auxiliaries came to be regarded as mere helpers in the verb-phrases; but as shown in paragraphs 203, 205, and 367, *ought*, *do*, and *have* are in reality principal verbs.

372. Appositive Adjective (211).—"When an adjective is joined to a noun or a pronoun in a looser and more indirect way, as if it were the predicate of an abbreviated descriptive clause, it is called an APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE. Its use is much like that of the appositive noun; and it is often, but not always, placed after the noun which it qualifies.

Examples: All poetry, *ancient* and *modern*, abounds in sentiment.
That is, all poetry, *whether it be ancient or modern.*

Tired and *hungry*, he hastened home.
That is, *since he was tired and hungry.*"

—Whitney & Lockwood's Grammar, p. 97.

373. Adverbial Objective (217).—"Nouns which express *measure*, either of time, distance, weight, number, age, or value, etc., may be used like *adverbs*, to qualify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. They may then be called ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVES.

Examples: They walked a *mile*. The pole was five *feet* long. You should have come a *day* earlier.

There is now no special case-form for this construction; but we know, from the forms in older English and in other languages, that the case of the noun is the objective. Besides, we can often use a preposition to connect such a noun with the word which it qualifies.

Examples: He waited an *hour*=He waited *for* an *hour*.
It is three *acres* larger=It is larger *by* three acres.
He died last *night*=*during* last night."

Whitney & Lockwood's Grammar, p. 52.

(*a.*) "The adverbial phrase is sometimes contracted into a noun or a prepositional prefix; *e. g.*, 'aboard,' 'afoot,' 'afield;' and sometimes still further into a noun without prefix of any kind; as, I am going fishing (this is a contraction for 'go on fishing,' or 'go a-fishing.')"—*How to Parse, p. 94.*

374. Cognate Object (218).—"Some verbs, though generally intransitive, take occasionally after them an object whose meaning is *akin* to the verb. Such objects are called cognate (*co-*, 'together;' *nate*, 'born:' Hence, 'born together,' 'related,' 'akin').

This usage is more common in poetry and in elevated language than in ordinary prose—

1. They have slept their *sleep*.
2. He has fought a good *fight*; They shouted *applause*.
3. We have walked a long *walk* today." —*How to Parse, p. 92.*

375. Supplements (221).—Dr. Abbott calls nouns and adjectives, used to complete the object after "verbs of identity," *supplements*, to distinguish them from the infinitive *complements* of subjects and objects. (222–3.) His treatment of these constructions is very thorough. [See "How to Parse," p. 102.]

(*a*) Professor Whitney calls these supplements of the object "objective or factitive predicates." He says:

"An object along with a predicate word qualifying it is taken especially often by a verb that is used in a factitive sense; that is, in the sense of 'making or causing or bringing about' something by means of the action which the verb signifies."

He then gives some examples, among which are the following:

Thus taking *sing* in the usual sense, we should never speak of "singing a throat," but we may say, "I sang my throat hoarse," meaning "I made my throat hoarse by singing." And in like manner, "She wrings the clothes dry," "They planed the board smooth," etc.; where *wrings dry* means 'makes dry by wringing,' and so on.

(*b*) "Even intransitive verbs are thus used factitively with objects and qualifying predicate; thus, "He danced his feet tired;" "They wept their eyes blind."

(*c*) "A verb, whether transitive or intransitive, is especially often used factitively when it is also used reflexively. [See 218 *b*.] Thus, "They sang themselves hoarse," "He walked himself weary.

[On the preceding page of "Essentials" appear the following examples of a similar use of the noun to complete the direct object:

"We called him a coward." "They chose her queen."

(*d*) "An adjective or a noun is called objective or factitive predicate when it is brought by the verb into relation with the direct object, as qualifying or describing that object."

(*e*) "In languages which distinguish the objective case throughout from the subjective or nominative by a different form, this predicate would, of course, be in the objective as the ordinary predicate in the nominative; but an instance of such 'agreement' cannot occur in English except [in the case of a pronoun] after an infinitive."—*Essentials, p. 166.*

376. "Declinable pronouns are often subjects of omitted verbs; thus—

1. He is older than *I* (am). 2. I am as strong as *he* (is). 3. No one was frightened but *he* (was frightened).

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—There is a question in reference to the construction illustrated in No. 3 above. Many treat *but* in such cases as a preposition. These would condemn Example No. 3, and correct it by writing *him* instead of *he*. Goold Brown, Mulligan, and several other eminent grammarians, however, treat *but* in such sentences as a co-ordinate conjunction. They teach that an omitted verb must be supplied, and that the case of the pronoun that follows *but* must be determined by the construction. Thus, they would condemn,

They all went but *him*,

because they would regard *him* as the subject of a suppressed verb; but they would justify,

They outran all the boys but *me*,

supplying the ellipsis, thus—

They outran all the boys but (they did not outrun) me,

and making *me* the object of the suppressed verb *outrun*.

A somewhat thorough search among English writers convinces me that ancient as well as modern usage upholds the latter view, viz., that *but*, in this case, is to be regarded not as a preposition, but as a co-ordinate conjunction."—*Practical Lessons in English, pp. 93-4.*

From the examples furnished by Professor Sill, we select the following, which we consider sufficient to sustain the opinion expressed above:

"This January, who is glad but he?"—*Chaucer.*
"Who followeth Cristes gospel and his love but we?"—*Id.*
"Methinks nobody should be sad but I."—*Shakespeare.*
"Take your oath that you elect no king but him."—*Id.*
"We are alone; there's none but thee and I."—*Id.* (This passage takes both sides of the question.)
"There is none other but he."—Mark XII: 32. [See also, John III: 13.]
"A fact of which, as none but he could be conscious, none but he could be the publisher of it."—*Pope.*

"Thus she, and none but she, the insulting rage
Of heretics opposed, from age to age."—*Dryden.*

"And in his hand he shakes the brand
That none but he can wield."—*Macaulay.*

"Whose lights are fled, whose garlands dead,
And all but he departed."—*Moore.*

"No one knew but I." "If I had been coming to any but her."—*Dickens.*
"All this while the strange man looked at nobody but me."—*Id.*

377. Archaic Forms (169).—Outside the realm of poetry and petitions to the throne of grace, it is better not to attempt using the archaic (or "solemn") forms, as they savor of affectation and are often ridiculously mixed. Not long ago, we saw the following sign in front of an enterprising (?) real-estate broker's office: "Come unto me and thou shall receive attention." Such a use of language is worse than absurd—it is disgusting to persons of good taste and good sense. If there is one thing that more than all others deserves condemnation by those who have the least grain of respect for Holy Writ, it is the presumptuous travesty of its familiar passages for advertising purposes. First cousin to it is the attempt to be witty or to say something "cute" (to which so many are prone) by making use of Scripture expressions when speaking of trivial things. [See page 118, Error 9.]

378. His or Her.—The lack of a personal pronoun of "common gender" has been the cause of much perplexity in our language in speaking *to* or in speaking *of* the individuals comprising a class or collection of males and females. Of course, there is no such perplexity when an audience is composed entirely of males or entirely of females, for then the feminine or the masculine pronoun is used as the case may be. But when an audience is "mixed," it is different. It sounds awkward (as it is) to say, "Each pupil should study his or her lesson well." "Let each one who favors this raise his or her hand." In such cases the best usage warrants our employing the masculine *his*, as representing both males and females in the same way that the term *mankind* is understood to include both men and women. Thus we say, "Each pupil should study his lesson well." "Let each one, etc., raise his hand."

379. Whether or no.—This expression, which is now generally regarded

as incorrect, is a striking illustration of the fact that "the best usage" is not the final law in language. In the words of an eminent writer on the subject, "The best usage may have been wrong." *Whether or no* was wrong a century or two ago (when it was freely used by good writers) in the same respect that it is wrong today; *it is not logical.* [See page 221.]

380. Had rather, etc. (258[14].)—"No doubt there is plenty of good authority for *had better* and *had rather;* but how can future action be expressed by a verb that signifies past and completed possession?"—*Words: Their Use and Abuse, p. 347.*

(*a*) "The incongruity of 'I had rather be,' etc., is that of the combination of the sign of past time with that of present time,—*had be.* In these sentences, the word *rather*, meaning only sooner, may confuse and mislead some readers, although it is merely a modifier of *had*, and has no formative function in the sentence. The incongruous and anomalous position of *had* may be seen by considering the expression of exactly the same thought by the use of *would* and the transposition of *rather*. 'I would be a door-keeper in the house of my God rather than dwell in the tents of the ungodly,' 'I would be right rather than be President,' are sense and English; but 'I had be a door-keeper, etc., rather than dwell,' and 'I had be right rather than be President' are nonsense."—*Every-Day English, p. 437.*

(*b*) "*Would rather* may always be substituted for *had rather. Might rather* would not have the same meaning. *Would* and *should* do not go well with *better*. In one instance, *can* is admissible. 'I can better afford,' because *can* is especially associated with *afford*. We may say *might better*, but it has neither the sanction, the idiomatic force, nor the precise meaning of *had better.*"—*The English Language and English Grammar, p. 413.*

381. Lie and Lay. (258[18].)—"Some years ago an old lady consulted an eccentric Boston physician, and, in describing her disease, said: 'The trouble, Doctor, is that I can neither lay nor set.' 'Then, Madam,' was the reply, 'I would respectfully suggest the propriety of roosting.'"—*Words: Their Use and Abuse, p. 345.*

382. Sit and Set. (258[24].)—"Most of us have heard and laughed at the story of the judge who, when counsel spoke of the setting of the court, took him up with, 'No, brother, the court sits; hens set.' But I fear that some of us have laughed in the wrong place. Hens do not *set;* they sit, as the court does, and frequently to better purpose. No phrase is more common than 'a setting hen,' and none more incorrect. A hen sits to hatch her eggs, and, therefore, is a sitting hen. *Sit* is an active, but an intransitive verb—a very intransitive verb—for it means to put one's self in a position of rest. *Set* is an active, transitive verb—very active and very transitive—for it means to cause another person or thing to sit, willy-nilly. A schoolma'am will illustrate the intransi-

tive verb by sitting down quietly, and then the transitive by giving a pupil a setting down which is anything but quiet. This setting down is metaphorical, and is borrowed from the real, physical setting-down which children sometimes have, much to their astonishment."—*Words and Their Uses, p. 156.*

(*a*) **The sun sets.**—As an explanation of the exception (or apparent exception) to the rule regarding *sit* and *sitting* in "The sun sets," "The sun was setting," and so forth, Mr. White shows in "Words and their Uses" that *set* in this case is from the old Anglo-Saxon *settle*, of which it is a corruption, *settle* being a noun meaning 'seat.'

383. Both alike. (268[6].)—"'Those two pearls are both alike.' This is equal to the story of Sam and Jem's resembling each other very much, particularly Sam. When we say of two objects that they are alike, we say that they are like each other—that is, simply, that one is like the other. The authority of very long and very eminent usage can be brought in support of *both alike;* but this is one of those points upon which such authority is of no weight; for the phrase is not an idiom, and it is at variance with reason. The error is more and other than pleonastic or than tautological. It is quite like that which I heard from a little girl,—a poor street waif,—who told a companion that she 'had two weenie little puppy-dogs at home, and they were both brothers.'"—*Words and Their Uses, pp. 88-89.*

384. Widow woman. (268[26].)—"In two out of seventy instances in the English Bible a widow is called a widow woman; the reason being, as I am informed by a friend who is, what I am not, a Hebrew scholar, that in those cases the original reads, 'a woman, a widow.'"—*Words and Their Uses, p. 175.*

385. It should seem. (269[19].)—"This is an absurd expression often met with even in the most esteemed authors. What does it mean? We all understand the word *seem* in its two shades of meaning, appearing and presenting a false appearance. Now a thing appears or does not appear; and that might well put an end to the matter. But in our great fondness for a display of modesty we sometimes say, unhesitatingly: 'It *would* seem.' This might consistently enough have a meaning, which would be: 'Granting certain conditions, it would then seem.' But that is not what people mean by the phrase, but something like this: 'I beg pardon ten thousand times for venturing to intimate that possibly it seems.' Still what is meant by 'It *should* seem,' and wherein does it differ from 'It would seem?' According to the proper signification of the words, the meaning should be: 'It *ought* to seem, but it does not.' Beyond that I am unable to extract from it any semblance of sense."—*Samuel Ramsey.*

386. Is being built, etc. (269[20].)—"But," says some one, "how are we to get along without *is being built, is* (or *was*) *being done*, and so forth?" Easily enough, we think; at least we have never heard that Chaucer, Shakespeare, and other great artists of the English language had any special difficulty

in getting along without them. Why should we hesitate to say, "The house is building," just as the cook says, "The bread is baking," or "The meat is roasting," for in all such cases it is well understood that the object, being incapable of action, is the receiver of the action—a *passive* subject. But even when the object is capable of performing the action, we are not driven to such straits that we must use a passive phrase involving a union of words denoting present-progressing-finished action. For instance, we are not obliged to say, "The boy is being whipped," nor yet "The boy is whipping" (which is ambiguous); for we may say, "They are (or he, or she is) whipping the boy," or "The boy is getting a whipping."

But this *is being* absurdity leads people to construct such awkward sentences as, "A fine residence *is being built* at the corner of Oak and Maple streets by Mr. Rich," when they mean simply that "Mr. Rich is building a fine house," or "is having a fine house built," etc.

We give below the views of some eminent writers regarding *is being*, etc.:

(*a*) "I know nothing of the history of the language, and I cannot tell whether all this will stand, but this I do know that rationally or irrationally, I have an undying hatred to "is being," whatever arguments are brought in its favor. At the same time I fully grant that it is so convenient in the present state of the language that I will not pledge myself I have never been guilty of using it."—*Cardinal Newman.*

The above is from a letter written by Cardinal Newman and published by Professor Earl in his "Philology of the English Tongue." Mr. Ramsey quotes it in his book and then adds:

"Now I do not agree with Cardinal Newman as to the convenience of the expression: 'The house *is being built.*" It seems to me quite inconvenient, inelegant, clumsy, and one that would be used only by a person who could think of no other to suit his purpose. Indeed, it admits of greater awkwardness than I have ever seen represented, If we say, '*is being built*,' we may also say, '*has been being built*,' or even 'The house *being being built*, the family went away for the summer.' Any one who will invent a better phrase will deserve public gratitude. Yet, bad as it is, it serves the purpose. It shows that the house is in progress, and that it is not the builder but the thing to be built."—*Samuel Ramsey.*

(*b*) "*Is being done* is simply *exists existing done.* To say, therefore, that a thing is being done is not only to say (in respect of the last two participles) that a process is going on and is finished, at the same time, but (in respect of the whole phrase) that it exists existing finished; which is no more or other than to say that it exists finished, is finished, is done; which is exactly what those who use the phrase do not mean. It means that if it means anything; but in fact it means nothing, and is the most incongruous combination of words and ideas that ever attained respectable usage in any civilized language.

This absurdity is cloaked by the formation of *to be* from parts of three verbs, which gives us such dissimilar forms as *is* for the present tense, *was* for the past, and *being* for the present participle. It seems as if in *is being* there were two verbs. We may be sure that if the present participle of *to be* were formed like that of *to love* (*loving*) we should never have heard the phrases *bes being done* or *is ising done*, *bes being built* or *is ising built.* This nonsense is hidden from the eye and deadened to the ear by the dissimilarity in form of *is* and *being.*"—*R. G. White.*

The following dialogue is said to have taken place some years ago in Massachusetts. It was published by a newspaper "for the benefit of grammarians:"

Old Gentleman.—"Are there any houses building in your village?"

Young Lady.—"No, Sir. There is a new house being built for Mr. Smith, but it is the carpenters who are building."

Gentleman.—"True; I sit corrected. To be building is certainly a different thing from to be being built. And how long has Mr. Smith's house been being built?"

Lady.—(Looks puzzled a moment, and then answers rather abruptly.) "Nearly a year."

Gentleman.—"How much longer do you think it will be being built?"

Lady.—(Explosively.) "Don't know."

Gentleman.—"I should think Mr. Smith would be annoyed by its being so long being built, for the house he now occupies being old, he must leave it, and the new one being only being built, instead of being built as he expected he cannot——" [*Exit young lady.*]

387. On the street. (269[24].)—This expression is a pure Americanism. Why do we not say, "on the alley," as well as "on the street," or "on the avenue." The point is this: Whenever *place* is meant, with no special reference to what the person or thing is standing, moving, or resting *upon*, we say (or should say) *in*, unless the place has no well-defined limits or is very great in extent. Thus we say, "The farmer is working *in* the field," "He was standing *in* the hall," "The children played *in* the yard," "It happened *in* the alley."

Now, a street or an avenue has certain well-defined limits. Notice the following definition from the Century Dictionary:

"*Street:* A public way or road, etc., including the sidewalk or sidewalks and the roadway; and having houses or town lots on one or both sides. Strictly the word excludes the houses which are on the street; or in a very common use it includes the land and houses which are then in the street; as a house in High street."

There has been some question as to whether one lives *on* or *in* a certain street. We venture the opinion that neither is logically correct. A person lives *at* such a number, *by* (*beside*, 'by-side') such a street. For do we not ask, "On which side of the street do you live?"

388. The exception proves the rule. (269[29].)—This "popular absurdity" has done so much harm in silencing the truth and hindering the right, that we give space to the following from a chapter by Richard Grant White in "Words and Their Uses." We regret that limited space prevents our giving the chapter entire.

"The few people who care to say only what they mean, and who therefore think about what they say and what others say to them, must sometimes be puzzled by the reply often made to an objection, 'Well, he, or that, is an exception, and you know the exception proves the rule.' This is uttered with calm assurance, as conclusive of the question at issue, and is usually received in silence—with an air of indifferent acquiescence on the part of the thoughtless, but on the part of the more thoughtful with a meek expression of bewilderment. The former are saved from the trouble of further mental exertion, and they are content; the latter feel that they have been overcome by the bringing up of a logical canon which always stands ready as a reserve, but the truth of which, admitted as indisputable, they would like very much to be able to dispute. In fact, this pretentious maxim infests discussion, and pervades the every-day talk of men, women, and children. It appears in the writings of historians, of es-

sayists, and of polemics, as well as in those of poets, novelists, and journalists. A legislator will use it to destroy the effect of an instance brought forward which is directly at variance with some general assertion that he has made. . . . . It enters into the word-skirmish of flirtation. 'How dare you assert,' says Miss Demure to Tom Crœsus, defiance on her lips and witchery in her eye, 'that women nowadays are all mercenary! Don't you know that it is an insult to me?' 'Ah, but, Miss Demure,' replies the weakly-struggling Crœsus, 'you're an exception; and you know the exception proves the rule.' Whereupon the lady submits with charming grace to the conqueror, having within her innocent breast the consoling conviction that she is playing her big fish with a skill that will soon lay him gasping at her feet. There is no turn which this maxim is not thus made to serve; and this use of it has gone on for a century or more, and people submit to the imposition without a murmur.

An imposition the maxim is, of the most impudent kind, in its ordinary use; for a mere exception never proved a rule; and that it should do so is, in the very nature of things, and according to the laws of right reason, impossible. Consider a moment. How can the fact that one man, or one thing, of a certain class, has certain traits or relations, prove that others of the same class have opposite traits and other relations?"—*Words and Their Uses, pp. 433–41.*

389. "Awful" Words. (270.)—The habit of exaggeration, or extravagance, in the use of words is one that is very common, indeed, so much so that probably but few persons are not guilty of it in a degree. The grace of "sound speech that cannot be condemned" is rare—very rare; yet it is a grace that should be sought after and cultivated.

(*a*) Akin to the use of such words as "awful," "horrid," "splendid," "immense," is the use of slang expressions; and the person who uses one will sooner or later find himself indulging more or less in the other. To the homely and forcible idioms of our language there can be no objection,—in fact they constitute an element of strength and beauty; but idioms differ materially from "slang." On this point, Professor Whitney says: "A tendency to slang, to colloquial inelegancies, and even vulgarities, is the besetting sin against which we, as Americans, have especially to guard and to struggle."

390. Misused Words. (271.)—We are well aware that Webster, Worcester, and even the great Century Dictionary admit some of the definitions, or uses, objected to in this list.* As to that, however, we have merely to say in the words of Mr. White, "Dictionaries have come to be in too many cases the pernicious record of unreasonable, unwarranted, and fleeting usage." This is particularly true of what we have called "counterfeit words." [See 278.] On this point, Mr. Gould says: ["Good English," p. 35.] "The rivalry between Wor-

*It is proper to say, however, that the *Century Dictionary*, being "an Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language," is supposed to contain the words and their uses as they are or have been in the past, and not merely as they should be.

cester and Webster, wherein each lexicographer strove to get into his book *more words* than could be found in the other's book has caused many words to appear in the two dictionaries which do not belong there." If the makers of "unabridged" dictionaries would confine their definitions of a word to those that are legitimate and necessary, the value of such books would be increased inversely as the square of the pages of matter thus omitted. Then they might do another excellent thing by putting all incorrectly formed words into an appendix where those who use the books might be warned that "these words are spurious."

If DeQuincey's statement that "All languages tend to clear themselves of synonyms as intellectual culture advances" is true, our dictionaries do not represent a very high state of intellectual culture. When the definitions (meanings) of a word are spun out until it (the word) is represented as a synonym of other words whose primary meanings are radically different from it, the word in question loses just so much of its force. The greater the number of meanings given a word the less definite it is. If a word has but one meaning, we are never in doubt as to what the writer or speaker means when he uses it; but when a word has a half dozen different meanings, we stand just one chance in six of being right in our interpretation of the user's meaning, for the context will not always help us out in this respect. Hence, the importance of confining words as nearly as possible to their primary meanings,—certainly to their *necessary* meanings.

391. Couple. (272.)—"The noun *couple* is necessarily the result of the verb *to couple*. The act of coupling precedes the fact of being coupled, and therefore the meaning of the noun is controlled by the meaning of the verb.

People of all classes, and writers of all positions, without the slightest misgiving, compunction, or remorse, daily fabricate such phrases as *a couple of days*, *a couple of dollars*, *a couple of eggs*, *a couple of books*, *a couple of weeks*, *months*, or *years*; and so on, to the end of English nouns-substantive. And for all that, those very people and those very writers would laugh to scorn any man who ventured to say, a *brace* of days, weeks, months, or years; a *yoke* of eggs; a *pair* of dollars, a *span* of books."—*Good English*, *p. 42-43*.

392. Depot and Station. (272.)—"Railroad depot is the abominable name usually given in this country to a railway station. Every depot is a station, although not in all cases a passenger or even a freight station; but very few stations are depots. A *dépôt* is a place where stores and materials are deposited for safe keeping. *Station* means merely a standing, and a railway station is a railway standing—a place where trains and passengers stand for each other. There is no justification whatever for calling such a place a *dépôt*. And to aggravate the offense of so doing as much as possible, the word is pronounced in a manner which is of itself an affront to common sense and good taste—that is, neither *day-poh*, as it should be if it is used as a French word, nor *dee-pott*, as it should be if it has been adopted as an English word. With an affectation of French pronunciation it is called *dee-poh*, the result being a hybrid English-French monster, which, with the phrase of which it forms a part, should be put out of existence with all convenient despatch."—*Words and Their Uses*, *p. 148*.

393. Either. (272.)—There is a use of *either* which gives it the signification of 'one and the other;' as, "On either side of the river was the tree of life;" "On either side of the street grew stately elms." But this use of the

word has been sharply criticised by both Gould and Mathews. Commenting upon the same point, Mr. White says:

"*Either* is a singular word. It expresses, and from Anglo-Saxon times has expressed, in the best usage, one of two and both of two. Thus, 'On either side of the river was the tree of life,' means that the tree grew on both sides alike; but, 'Take either side of the river,' means that one or the other of the two sides may be taken. It is almost impossible to explain how this word means both one and two, and how it can be used without causing any confusion for intelligent people."

Again, the same author speaking of the pronunciation of these words, says:

"For the pronunciation *i-ther* and *ni-ther*, with the *i* long, which is sometimes heard, there is no authority, either of analogy or of the best speakers. It is an affectation, and in this country, a copy of second-rate British affectation. Persons of the best education and the highest social position in England generally say *eether* and *neether*."—*Words and Their Uses.*

394. Ill, Sick. (273.)—"I was present once when a British merchant, receiving in his own house a Yankee youth at a little party, said, in a tone that attracted the attention of the whole room, 'Good evening! We haven't seen you for a long while. Have you been *seeck*' (the sneer prolonged the word), 'as you say in your country?' 'No, thank you,' said the other frankly and promptly, 'I've been *hill*, as they say in yours.'

British officers have sick leave; British invalids keep a sick bed, or a sick room, and so forth, no matter what their ailment. No one of them ever speaks of ill leave, an ill room, or an ill bed. Was an Ill Club ever heard of in England? The incongruity is apparent, and it is new-born and needless. For the use of *ill*—an adverb—as an adjective, thus, 'an ill man,' there is no defence and no excuse, except the contamination of bad example."—*Words and Their Uses.*

395. Likewise. (273.)—"An English Quaker was once asked by a lawyer whether he could tell the difference between *also* and *likewise*. 'O, yes,' was the reply, 'Erskine is a great lawyer; his talents are universally admired. You are a lawyer *also* but not like-*wise*.'"—*Words: Their Use and Abuse, p. 346.*

396. Nice. (274.)—"One of the most offensive barbarisms now prevalent is the use of this as a pet word to express almost every kind of approbation, and almost every quality. Of the vulgarity of such expressions as 'a nice man' (meaning a good or pleasing man), 'a nice day,' 'a nice party,' etc., there cannot be a shadow of doubt. 'A nice man' means a fastidious man; a 'nice letter' is a letter very delicate in its language. Some persons are more nice than wise."—*Words: Their Use and Abuse, p. 358.*

397. Own, Confess. (274.)—"A man commits a crime, and on being arrested and intimidated into a confession, he 'owns' the crime. It must be *owned*, that it is a queer kind of ownership. There are other kinds.

On the other hand, when *confess* is the right word, it is frequently tagged with a *to*, which makes strange work of the writer's or speaker's meaning. To confess is to acknowledge or to disclose something; and in the latter sense it is to reveal some previously unknown fact to some person or persons. Yet one of the well-edited Massachusetts newspapers stated that A. B, previously to being hung, 'confessed *to* two murders,' besides the one for which he suffered; C. D. 'confessed *to* three murders;' and E. F. confessed *to* four murders,'—all previously unknown to the courts. That jumble of *to's* was contained in one paragraph of the newspaper referred to."—*Good English, p. 138.*

398. Pell-mell. (274.)—"This word or phrase implies a crowd and confusion (Fr. *melee*), and should never be applied, as it is by some speakers and some writers for the press, to an individual; as, for instance, in this sentence from a first-rate newspaper: 'I rushed pell-mell out of the theatre.' The writer might as well have said that he rushed out promiscuously, or that he marched out by platoons.'"—*Words and Their Uses, p. 145.*

399. Present. (274.)—"The use of this word for *introduce* is an affectation. . . In France, every person, in being made acquainted with another, is presented, the French language not having made the distinction which is made in England between *present* and *introduce*. We present foreign ministers to the President; we introduce, or should introduce, our friends to each other. We introduce the younger to the older, the person of lower position to the person of higher, the gentleman to the lady—*not* the older to the younger, the lady to the gentleman."—*Words and Their Uses, p. 147.*

400. Raise. (274.)—"*Raising the rent*, for increasing the rent. A landlord notified his tenant that he should raise his rent. 'Thank you,' was the reply; 'I find it very hard to raise it myself.'"—*Words: Their Use and Abuse, p. 366.*

401. (274.) **"Remember** and **Recollect** are used interchangeably, as if they were synonyms, and the preference seems to be most generally given to the latter. They are not synonymous, and the distinction between them is an important one, which ought to be preserved. That which lies in our memory at hand, ready for use at any moment, we remember; but we also really do remember much that does not lie at hand, that we cannot find in our mind's storehouse on the instant, and this we try to recollect, that is, to re-collect. Therefore, the expression, I don't remember, but I will try to recollect, is not only correct, but it sets forth a condition of the mind expressible in no other way, and to speak of which we have frequent necessity. The ability to do so will be impaired, if not altogether lost, when the distinction between the two words is done away."—*Every-Day English, p. 414.*

402. (276.) **"Anticipate** means, by derivation, to take beforehand, and its proper meaning in English is to take first possession of, or to take before the proper time. If a man's note is due on the 30th, and he pays it on the 25th, he anticipates its due payment. A man may anticipate another in doing something which both intend doing; that is, he may succeed in doing it first. But his looking forward to doing either of these acts is not anticipation; it is expectation."—*Every-Day English, p. 413.*

403. Caption. (276.)—"The affectation of fine, big-sounding words which have a flavor of classical learning has had few more laughable or absurd manifestations than the use of *caption* (which means seizure, act of taking), in the sense, and in the rightful place, of *heading*. In our newspapers, even in the best of them, it is too common. This monstrous blunder was first made by some person who knew that *captain* and *capital* expressed the idea of headship, but who was sufficiently ignorant to suppose that *caption*, from its similarity in sound to those words, had a kindred meaning. But *captain* and *capital* are from the Latin *caput*, a head; and *caption* is from *capio*, I seize, *captum*, seized. Language rarely suffers at the hands of simple ignorance; by which indeed it is often enriched and strengthened; but this absurd misuse of *caption* is an example of the way in which it is made mere empty sound, by the pretentious efforts of presuming half-knowledge."—*Words and Their Uses, p. 98.*

404. (276.) **"Inaugurate** is a word which might better be eschewed by all those who do not wish to talk high-flying nonsense, else they will find themselves led by bad examples into using it in the sense of begin, open, set up, establish. To inaugurate is to receive or induct into office with solemn ceremonies. The occasions are very few in regard to which it may be used with propriety. But we shall read ere long of cooks inaugurating the preparation of a dinner, and old Irish women inaugurating a peanut stand; as well these as inaugurating, instead of opening, a ball, or inaugurating, instead of setting up, or establishing, a business."—*Words and Their Uses, p. 128.*

405. Initiate. (276.)—"It may be more elegant to say, the kettle took the initiative, than to use the homelier phrase to which our ears have been accustomed; but I have not been able to make the discovery. And I may as well here despatch a rabble of such words, all of kindred origin and pretentious seeming. Unless a man is a crown prince, or other important public functionary, it is well for him to have a house and a home, where he lives, not a place of

residence, where he *resides*. From this let him and his household go to church or to meeting, if they like to do so; but let not the *inmates proceed* to the *sanctuary*. And if, being able and willing to do good, he gives something to the parson for the needy, let him send his cheque, and not *transmit* it. Let him oversee his household and his business, not *supervise* them. Let him reject, disown, refuse, or condemn what he does not like, but not *repudiate* it, unless he expects to cause shame, or to suffer it, in consequence of his action; and what he likes let him like or approve or uphold, but not *indorse;* and, indeed, as to indorsing, let him do as little of that as possible. I have come from pretension into the shop, and, therefore, I add, that if he is informed upon a subject, has learned all about it, knows it, and understands it, let him say so, not that he is *well posted* on it. He will say what he means, simply, clearly, and forcibly, rather than pretentiously, vulgarly, and feebly. It is noteworthy and significant that the man who will say that he is posted upon this or that subject, is the very one who will use such a foolish, useless, pretentious word as *recuperate*, instead of *recover*. Thus the Washington correspondent of a leading journal wrote that General Grant and Mr. Speaker Colfax expected to start for Colorado on the first of July, and that their trip is 'for the sole purpose of recuperating their health.' If the writer had omitted five of the eight words which he used to express the purpose of the travellers, and said the trip is 'for health only,' his sentence would have been bettered inversely as the square of the number of words omitted. But it will not do to be so very exacting as to ask people not to use any more words than are necessary, and so all that can be reasonably hoped for is, that *recuperate* may be shown to the door by those who have been weak enough to admit him. He is a mere pompous impostor. At most and best, *recuperate* means recover; not a jot more or less. *Recover* came to us English through our Norman-French kinsfolk, and sometime conquerors. It is merely their *recouvrer* domesticated in our household. They got it from the Latin *recuperare*. But why we should go to that word to make another from it, which is simply a travesty of *recover*, passes reasonable understanding. . . . It would be well if all such words as those of which I have just treated could be gathered under one head, to be struck off at a blow by those who would like to execute justice on them."—*White*.

406. Observe. (276.)—"Used to mean heed, take note of, keep in view, follow, attend to, fulfil, it does good service. But in the sense of *say*, as, I observed to him so and so, for, I said so and so to him, or, What did you observe? for, What did you say? it might better be left to people who must be very elegant and exquisite in their speaking."—*Words and Their Uses*.

407. Paraphernalia. (276.)—"It is a law-term and only a law-term, originally; and it so continues. Any use of it, out of the law, cannot be appropriate. A *man* cannot have paraphernalia. As it is thus a law-term, 'the people' would do much better to let it alone. But as it is a *long word*, the attempt to make them let it alone is something like trying to make a boy let a long stick of candy alone. As Hamlet says of 'French falconers,' they 'fly *it* at anything they see,'—appendages, ornaments, trappings; in short, a miscellaneous collection of any sort of things. The word comes from the Greek, through the Latin, with very little change of spelling or pronunciation, and its meaning is, simply and concisely, *beyond dower;* independent of dower; that is, over and above dower; and, when combined in Law Latin thus, *paraphernalia bona*, it means '*goods* in the wife's disposal,'—'*articles* which a wife brings with her at her marriage, beyond her dower or jointure.'"—*Good English, p. 54*.

408. (277.) **"Predicate** means primarily to speak before, and, hence, to bear witness, to affirm, to declare. So the Germans call their clergymen *predicants*, because they bear witness to and declare the gospel. But in English, *predicate* is a technical word used by grammarians to express that element of the sentence which affirms something of the subject, or (as a noun) that which is affirmed. And thus action may be predicated *of* a body or an individual; but action predicated *by* a body *upon* circumstances or statements, is simple absurdity. Those persons for whom this distinction is too subtle might better confine themselves to plain English, and ask, What are you going to do about it?—language good enough for a chief justice or a prime minister."—*Words and Their Uses, p. 146*.

409. Counterfeit Words. (278.)—There are certain laws, so to speak, governing the formation, or coinage of new words. Probably no one can explain just how or why these laws exist. They seem to be a part of the life of our language; to have, in fact, originated with the language, and to be an underlying principle in its growth. When these principles or laws are violated, the result is a spurious word,—a base coin, and the effect upon the language is harmful, just as it would be harmful to the finances of a country if the government should allow the counterfeiting of its currency to go unrestrained.

For instance, one of the principles of word-formation is that both parts of a derivative or compound shall be from the same source. To illustrate this, take the Greek suffixes *ize* and *ist*, the former being the suffix for verbs and the latter for nouns. These suffixes should not be added to Anglo-Saxon words. The failure to observe this rule leads to the formation of such vulgarisms as *talkist*, *walkist*, *shootist*. The Anglo-Saxon suffix *er* should be added to all such words as *walk*, *talk*, *shoot* and *teach*, but not to such words as *telegraph*, *photograph*, and *paragraph*, which should give us *telegraphist*, etc.

Again, the Greek suffix *ize* is sometimes erroneously added to verbs of long standing in the language without adding anything to the meaning. Thus, *jeopardize*, 'to jeopard;' *experimentize* (or *experimentalize*—see 279), 'to experiment.' A good example of a spurious compound is *cablegram*, formed by the union of the Anglo-Saxon *cable* with the Greek *gram*. Concerning this word, Richard Grant White says, "There could not be a finer specimen of an utterly superfluous monster than this English-Greek hybrid *cablegram*."

410. Anyways, Towards, etc. (278.)—"Early English writers have given the words in a separate form; as, for example, the translators of the Bible say *to us ward*, etc. But where is there a warrant for the addition of the final *s* to any of the words,—excepting its incidental, or perhaps accidental, use by certain old English writers, as Milton, Shakespeare, Dr. South, and others? Those authors are doubtless followed by modern writers without number; but also, one might suppose, without reflection on the part of the writers; and certainly without *our* knowing that the fault may not have been with the printer."—*Good English*, *p. 25*.

411. Gent and Pants. (278.)—"Let these words go together, like the things they signify. The one always wears the other."—*Words and Their Uses*.

> The things called *pants* in certain documents,
> Were never made for gentlemen, but *gents*.—*Oliver Wendell Holmes*.

Strictly speaking, we should say *trousers* instead of *pantaloons*.

412. Marry. (327.)—"There has been not a little discussion as to the use of this word, chiefly in regard to public announcements of marriage. The usual mode of making the announcement is 'Married, John Smith *to* Mary Jones.' Some people having been dissatisfied with this form, we have seen, of late years, in certain quarters, 'Married, John Smith *with* Mary Jones; and in others, 'John Smith *and* Mary Jones.' I have no hesitation in saying that all of these forms are incorrect. We know, indeed, what is meant by any one of them; but the same is true of hundreds and thousands of erroneous uses of language. Properly speaking, a man is not married to a woman, or married with her; nor are a man and woman married with each other. The woman is married to the man. It is her name that is lost in his, not his in hers; she becomes a member of his family, not he of hers."—*Words and Their Uses*, *p. 139*

USAGE NOT THE FINAL LAW AS TO CORRECTNESS.

It should be noticed that Errors 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 14, 15, and 16, pages 117–19, are questions of logical relations rather than of "grammar." So, also, are most of the "popular absurdities," pages 128–31. Indeed, nearly all the errors in English syntax may be resolved into questions concerning the logical sequence of words,—their relations according to sense; *and this law of logical relations in the sentence is the final law as to what is correct.*

Some, however, defend such expressions as *had rather*, and *is being done*, on the ground that they are idiomatic and have the support of good usage. It is true that idioms, being, in the main, metaphorical, defy all attempts at classification according to the technical terms and definitions of "grammar;" but an idiom should not be illogical, and those idioms that are not logical will sooner or later be discarded as erroneous, just as in the case of "whether or no." [See 379.]

As to usage: No amount of good usage, however eminent the users may be, can make a wrong—an *illogical*—thing right; nor will calling an illogical expression an "idiom" save it from the fate it deserves, though it may require a long time to bring people to see that it is wrong.

The idea that usage decides all questions as to correctness of speech is an erroneous one, and one that has done much harm. *There is scarcely an error in English syntax* (even the gross errors which grammarians and others have pointed out and sought to correct in their chapters on "false syntax,") *but may be justified and defended on the ground of "good usage."*

The first concern of the great speaker or the great writer is not about words, which are but the vehicles of thought, but with great thoughts and themes. Often these thoughts come as an inspiration to such a person and his business is to give them to the world. In his impassioned utterances, the speaker's tongue may not always be accurate, and it is often the case that he has not an opportunity to recast his sentences before they appear in print. With the writer, it is different. He is supposed to use greater care in his choice of words and forms of expression; but much of our best English literature has come from pens that have been impelled by impassioned or inspired minds. And so pens have slipped, as well as tongues.

Again, many errors in our great masterpieces of literature have been the result of imperfect, or incorrect translation, while still others, no doubt, have crept in through the carelessness of printers.

Of course, when the common people find certain words and forms of expression in what is regarded as good literature, or hear them from the lips of good public speakers, they (the people) are excusable for supposing them to be correct and, hence, for using them. But if such words and expressions are incorrect—illogical—it is the duty of teachers of our language to point out the fact and do what they can to help preserve the purity, simplicity, and logical force of our noble English tongue.

THE ENGLISH A GRAMMARLESS LANGUAGE.

"If then Grammar be merely declension and conjugation, which is not far from the truth, it plays comparatively a very insignificant part in English. All the irregularities of our language are more than compensated by the extreme paucity [small number] of its grammatical forms. It is almost as grammarless as Chinese, in which no written word is ever varied by a single stroke or dot, and when spoken admits of only a change of tone. The weary hours and years spent by our youth in parsing English sentences according to forms borrowed from Greek and Latin are worse than wasted—useless for the avowed purpose of learning to speak and write, and leading to a misapprehension of what our language is. . . . Grammar then treats of everything relating to a language that can be reduced to general facts, principles, or rules. *It has to deal chiefly with the various forms assumed by the same words.* This is, in English, a very narrow field, but extremely rocky."—*Samuel Ramsey.*

Sir Philip Sidney, in his "Apology for Poetry," published in 1595, said:

"I know some will say it is a mingled language. And why not so much the better, taking the best of both the other? Another will say that it wanteth [lacks] grammer. Nay, truly, it hath that praise that it wanteth not [does not need] grammer; for grammer it might have, but it needes it not; being so easie of itselfe, and so voyd of those cumbersome differences of cases, genders, moodes, and tenses, which I think was a peece of the Tower of Babilon's curse that a man should be put schoole to learne his mother tongue. But for the uttering sweetly and properly the conceits of the minde, which is the end of speech, that hath it equally with any other tongue in the world; and is particularly happy in compositions of two or three words together, neere the Greeke, far beyond the Latine, which is one of the greatest beauties can be in a language."

"The reason why English has no grammar is that it is uncumbered with cases, genders, moods, and tenses, and, we may almost say, with grammatical person. For these are the essence of grammar, or rather, I should say, its conditions; without them there can be no grammar. *Grammar has to do with the correct form and correlation of words.* But in English there is no form, and consequently no correlation dependent upon form that has any noteworthy influence upon the construction of the sentence. Let candid objectors wait a little before they spring up to reply. I said 'noteworthy influence' meaning by this phrase to allow for certain small remnants of grammar which are to be found in the English language. For English had once a grammar. When the English-speaking people were rude, ignorant, savage, and heathen, without literature, without any semblance of fine art, knowing little even of the useful arts, living in hovels, tilling the ground in the rudest manner, having a money price for man's life, their language had a grammar, which surpassed in complexity that of the Romans, and almost equal to that of the Greeks. But as they became civilized they rid themselves of this complexity; and when they had reached the point at which they were about to produce a Bacon and a Shakespeare, they had, to all intents and purposes, freed themselves from it entirely."—*White.*

INDEX.

Numbers refer to paragraphs. For general subjects, see Table of Contents.

Absolute constructions, 214.

Adjectives, 15; predicate adjectives, 16; deriv. and comp., 68–9; kinds of, 87–93; how to distinguish from pro., 94; forms of, 145; comparison, 145; facts and errors, 241–8.

Adjective-phrases, 69[6].

Adjectival phrases, 27*a*; clauses, 118.

Adverbs, 19–21, 336; how to tell, 22; deriv. and comp., 72–3; classes of, 103–5; facts and errors, 241–8.

Adverb-phrases, 73[7].

Adverbial phrases, 27*b*; clauses, 117.

Adverbial nouns, 79*e*, 109, 217, 373.

Analysis, 33; exercises—simple sentences, 36, 40–1, 44; compound sentences, 51; complex sentences, 117–25; miscel., 228.

Appositional use of nouns, 208; pronouns, 209; adj., 372; infi. and part., 224.

Articles, 90, 349, 358, 370.

Attendant elements, 215.

Auxiliary verbs, 197; uses, etc., 199–204.

Can and *could*, 202.

Clauses, 111*a*; adverbial, 117; adjectival, 118; noun, 120–3; conditional, 188–9.

Comparatives, 112[5]; form of pronoun after *as* and *than*, 237*a*.

Conjugation, 177; exercises, 178–80–6.

Conjunctions, 29, 339; composition of, 76; kinds,—co-ordinate, 110; subordinate, 111; correlative, 114, 264; errors, 264–6.

Conjunctive-adverbs, 105.

Conjunction-phrases, 76*a*, 113.

Copula verbs, 16*a*, 110*b*, *Note;* 352.

Elements, 34; principal, 35; subordinate, 37; adjectival, 38; adverbial, 39, 336*b*; objective, 42–8; connecting, 49, 356; word, phrase, clause, 49; forms of,—simple, complex, compound, 49; order of, 52–3; placing in logical order—exercise, 54; attendant, 215.

"Gender," 361.

Had rather, etc., 380.

Have, use in verb-phrases, 180, 367*a*.

Independent words, 31, *Note;* 206.

Infinitives, 190; constructions, 191, 222–5; "sign" of omitted, 192; summary of uses, 226; infinitive-phrases, 194.

Interjections, 31, 340.

Is being built, etc., 386.

It and *there*, indef. subjects, 108, 212.

Lie and *lay*, 258[18], 381.

May and *might*, 201.

"Mode," 368.

Must and *ought*, 203.

Nouns, 4*a*, 5[4]; predicate nouns, 17; derivative and compound, 64–5; kinds of, 78–9; forms of; facts and errors, 229–233.

Number-form of nouns, 128; of pronouns, 140; of adjectives, 150; of verbs, 152.

Object, 42, 343; how to tell, 43; direct and indirect, 46; objective element, 48; objects of intransitive verbs and passive verb-phrases, 218–19; supplemented object, 221; complement of, 222.

Participles, 165; how to distinguish from nouns and adjectives, 170.

Participle-phrases, 195; used as nouns, 196; summary of uses, 226.

Parts of speech, 1, 4, 5[1], 331.

Phrases, 10; adjectival, 27*a*; noun, 65[7]; adjective, 69[6]; adverb, 73[7]; adverbial, 27*b*; predicate-adjectival, 41*a*, 342; inverted, 41*c*; punctuation of, 304.

Possessive form of nouns, 135; in apposition, 363; of pronouns, 141–2; joint and separate poss., 136; poss. phrases, 137.

Predicate, 3–5; must contain a verb, 9; bare and complete, 37; active and passive forms, 101.

Prepositions, 26; deriv. and comp., 74-5; facts and errors, 260-3; appropriate, 324-8.
Preposition-phrases, 75^3, 338.
Principal parts of verbs, 177.
Pronouns, 11, 334; simple and comp., 66-7; kinds of, 80-4; how to distinguish from adjectives, 94; forms of, 140-1-3; facts and errors, 234-240.
Pronoun-phrases, 67^3.

Sentences, 2, 5^2; simple and comp., 50; kinds of, 55-8; complex, 124.
Sex distinction in nouns, 134, 361.
Shall and *will*, 173-5, 199, 366.
Should and *would*, 200.
Subject and predicate, 3, 5^3; bare and complete, 37, 341; complement of subject, 223.
Supplements of obj. and subj., 221-2, 375.
Sit and *set*, 258^{24}, 382.

"Tense," 161, *Note;* 367.
That, 85*f*; "clause article," 358.
Time-form of verbs, 160; but two forms, 161, 173*a*.
To, "sign" of infinitive, 190–2, 370.
Verbs, 4*b*, 5^5, 332; copulas, 16*a*, 100*b*, *Note;* 352; deriv. and comp., 70-1; kinds, 96-8; how to tell trans. from intrans., 100; reg. and irreg., 162; prin. parts, 177; infinitives, 190; facts and errors, 249-59; list of irregular, 329; defective, 330.
Verb-forms: number, 152; person, 157-9, 364; time, 160; regular and irregular, 162; other irregular forms, 163; participle forms, 164-6; summary, 168; archaic, 169.
Verb-phrases, 10, 333*a;* passive, 101, 184; expressing future time, 173; "perfect" time, 180–2; progressive, 187; emphatic, 205.
Verbals, 164.

Were used in the present, 188–9.
Who, *which* and *that*, uses of, 85, 347.
Words, 1; do not always belong to same part-of-speech, 32, 331; Anglo-Saxon and foreign, 59; simple, derivative and compound, 60–2; independent, 206; introductory, 207; explanatory, 208.
Word-making, 63-76.

PRINCIPAL AUTHORS CONSULTED.

ABBOTT, REV. E. A.[1]—*How to Write Clearly*, 1876. *How to tell the Parts of Speech*, 1883. *How to Parse*, 1883.—Roberts Brothers, Boston.
CAMPBELL, L. J.—*Hand-book of Synonyms and Prepositions*, 1881. (Ed. 1890.) Lee & Shepard, Boston.
GOULD, REV. EDW. S.—*Good English*, 1880.—A. C. Armstrong & Son, N. Y.
MATHEWS, WILLIAM—*Words: Their Use and Abuse*, 1880. S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.
RAMSEY, SAMUEL—*The English Language and English Grammar*, 1892. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y.
SILL, J. M. B.[2]—*Practical Lessons in English*, 1880.—American Book Co., N. Y.
TOWNSEND, L. T.—*Art of Speech*, 1884.—D. Appleton & Co., N. Y.
WHITE, RICHARD GRANT—*Every-Day English*, 1880. *Words and Their Uses*, 1870. (19th Ed. 1890.)—Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.
WHITNEY, W. D.[3]—*Essentials of English Grammar*, 1880.
WHITNEY & LOCKWOOD—*English Grammar*, 1892.—Ginn & Company, Boston.

1. Head Master of the City of London School.
2. Principal State Normal School, Ypsilanti, Michigan.
3. Professor of Languages in Yale University; Editor-in-chief of the *Century Dictionary*.

PRACTICAL TEXT BOOKS.

DESIGNED FOR USE IN SCHOOLS, FOR HOME STUDY, AND AS BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Plain English, a practical text-book on the subject of language, discarding useless matter of which the average "grammar" has so largely consisted; 224 pages, 6x8 inches; handsomely bound in green cloth; red edges; embossed cover; 90 cents.

—::—

Letter Writing. This book contains illustrated instruction for writing all kinds of letters, especial attention having been given to business correspondence. It is the most complete, systematic, and best arranged book yet published on this subject. Contains 144 pages, 5½x8; illustrated with copper-plate script; very attractively bound in full cloth. Price, 75 cents.

—::—

Spelling and Letter Writing. This book contains all that is in the two books, Spelling and Letter Writing, above described, 118 pages of the combined book being devoted to spelling. Substantially bound in cloth; fully illustrated with elegantly engraved copper-plate script; price, $1.00.

—::—

Practical Shorthand. This book, based on the Pitmanic alphabet, is the joint work of prominent reporters and teachers. It contains 50 full pages of engraved shorthand, and nearly 500 other engraved illustrations. Bound in cloth and handsomely embossed; 244 pages, 5½x8; price, $1.50.

—::—

Typewriting Instructor and Stenographer's Hand-Book, published in three editions, for the Remington, Caligraph, and Smith Premier. The books give a series of 102 carefully graded lessons and much general information, Both Sight and Touch methods. Size of page, 7½x10 inches, two colors; full cloth; handsomely embossed; 116 pages; price, $1.00.

—::—

Everybody's Dictionary, *for every-day use.* Compiled from Webster's great International. Comprehensive enough and small enough for everybody's *constant* use. Contains 33,000 words. Price, indexed and bound in American morocco, embossed in gold, 50 cents; cloth, not indexed, 25 cents.

—::—

Commercial Law, a systematically arranged and fully illustrated text-book on Business Law and Forms. Valuable alike as a text-book or a book of reference. Bound in full cloth, embossed cover; 192 pages, 5½x8; price, $1.00.

—::—

New Practical Arithmetic, embracing mental and written arithmetic. The book covers the ground, beginning with reading and writing numbers, and includes many short methods used in banks and business houses. Handsomely bound; 392 pages, 6x8; with or without answers. Price, $1.25.

Practical Spelling, 120 pages, 5½x8 inches; 190 lessons of 20 words each, and 40 Dictation Exercises; full cloth; handsomely embossed; 35 cents.

—::—

Progressive Bookkeeping, giving the theory of Bookkeeping by Single and Double Entry, with *eleven sets* for practice. Beautifully illustrated with copper-plate script, and printed in three colors. Contains 96 pages, 8x11. Bound in full cloth, handsomely embossed. Price, $1.00.

—::—

Mercantile Practical Bookkeeping contains what is in Progressive Bookkeeping, and also sets for Retail Furniture, Retail Grocery, Commission, Manufacturing (illustrating Corporation Bookkeeping), and Retail Hardware (changing from a partnership to a corporation, and closing the books). A book for business colleges and schools having well organized commercial departments. Full cloth; 168 pages, 8x11; three colors. Price, $1.50.

—::—

Complete Practical Bookkeeping contains all that is in the Mercantile, and also extensive sets illustrating special ruled books and time-saving methods as applied to Wholesale Drugs, Wholesale and Retail Lumber, and Retail Dry Goods; Methods and Forms for Department Stores, Clearing Houses, Savings Banks, 39 pages devoted to Banking, and an Appendix of 65 pages, giving the fullest and most valuable collection of forms and useful information ever published for bookkeepers and business men. This book is for use in the most advanced schools, and as a book of reference for teachers and others. Cloth; three colors; 308 pages, 8x11. Price, $2.25.

—::—

Business Practice.—Objects: The application of theory and the handling of all business papers. Form: Five kinds of business in five separate pads, stitched on the left side. These teach how to write and handle all kinds of business papers. Being independent of one another, any number of these parts may be used without using the others. The business forms are artistic. The writing upon incoming forms is the regular business writing of more than 100 of America's foremost penmen and teachers. The practice is packed in a beautiful cloth-covered filing case (3x9x10 inches), having drawers and files for the several kinds of papers. This Practice can be used with any text-book. It is inexpensive, compact and neat; comprehensive, yet simple and progressive. Write for complete information.

Any of the above books will be sent at the prices named, postage or express charges prepaid. Our illustrated catalogue mailed free. Address the publishers,

THE PRACTICAL TEXT BOOK COMPANY, • • • CLEVELAND, OHIO.